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ART. I.—NOTES ON MEXICO, IN 1825.

NOTES OF A TOUR FROM THE CITY OF MEXICO TO TEZCUCO, OTUMBA AND ZEMPOALLA, WITH SOME ACCOUNT OF THE CULTURE OF THE MAGUEY OP AGUÆ AMERICANO, AND OF THE MANNER OF MANUFACTURING PULQUE: TOGETHER WITH A DESCRIPTION OF THE PYRAMIDS OF TEOTIHUACAN.

[The following article has been placed at our disposal by the Hon. JOEL R. POINSETT. It has not been included in his "Notes on Mexico," or in any other publication. As our knowledge of that country must be derived from those having the best opportunities to impart it, whether of former or more recent periods, we feel assured that the readers of the Review will value a fragment so interesting. While United States' Minister, Mr. Poinsett had facilities for examination, which a time of peace and good will between the two countries was best calculated to afford.—EDITOR.]

December 25th, 1825—Left Mexico at half-past nine o'clock; fine view of the volcanoes; mountains rising gradually from each side of the road; passed the gap and turned to the left over the bed of the lake, following the road which runs upon its edge; change of scenery; cultivated fields; passed several haciendas on the right of the road—Sta Martha and Santa Magdalene the largest; passed the village of Chiqulaopa seven leagues from Mexico and near Quantlalpa; about a mile further, stopped and inquired the names of these villages from an intelligent old Indian; supposed of course that we were going to the cock-fight at Tezcuco; lamented the death of the finest cock ever reared, carried off by a "Coyote;" would not have taken twenty "duros" for it; begged us to wait until he brought out a special fine one that he was training; put it on the ground that we might see its height; and we left him with his foot upon the jesses, admiring the beauty of his bird.

The beauty and cultivation of the valley increased as we came nearer to Tezcuco; shortly before entering the gate, passed the hacienda of Chapingo, belonging to the Marquis of Vivanco; the bridge of Bergantines, a few yards from the gate, where Cortes is supposed to have launched his vessels; lake filled up, the nearest point now four or five miles from Tezcuco, but the whole of that space bearing

evident marks of having been covered with water; passed the square or market place, and turning to the right into the principal street, stopped at the house of Dr. Nicolas Campero, collector of Diermos for this district; hospitably received by the ladies, who informed us that the gentlemen were all at the "Gallos," (cock-fight.) Hither we posted, and on paying twenty-five cents at the door, were admitted to the scene of action. Officers and their wives—gentlemen and ladies—men and women—Dons rolled in cloaks of fine cloth, and leperos wrapped in their blankets, all regarding with breathless attention the issue of the combat, on which depended bets to great amount to all parties. We stopped near the door, not to interrupt the spectators, until one of the cocks was killed, when we moved on without difficulty to where our party was seated; the mob having rushed over into the pit.

As we passed the orchestra, the music struck up—two mandolines, two guitars, and three singers, which filled up the intervals between the fights. The birds were carried round by the trainers; Mexico against Tezcuco. Brokers bawled out the bets, and after a great deal of indescribable manœuvring by the trainers—putting the cocks down and snatching them up, and plucking feathers from their necks, and spirting spittle between their bills—the cocks were left to themselves, and there was a fair set-to, which excited the same interest as the last. When it was over, I was glad to find it was time to go to dinner.

In the afternoon, we walked to the house of the commandant, Dr. Mariano Villaurutia, where we saw several idols of basalt, similar to those so often described, and a large stone carved into the form of a rattle-snake, extremely well executed. From hence we bent our steps towards the great square, and on passing near the corner of a street, perceived a broken statue buried, with the head down; part of the back and thighs only being above ground. What could be seen, appeared to me to be better formed than most of the Indian statues I had yet seen.

We were next taken to the ruins of the palace of Montezuma, as they are called, a large mound, where there are still several very large square stones, laid as if they covered the surface of a vault. We measured the first two, which appeared as if laid over the mouth or entrance, and found them of large dimensions. We saw, too, a great many large fragments, and some entire stones, scattered over the mound,—one of a circular form, half discovered,—and were informed that many of the houses of Tezcuco had been partly built with stones taken from these ruins. The platform before the church of San Francisco is paved with them—some of immense size, and some sculptured; one circular stone, similar to those which are supposed to have been the altars of human sacrifice. We plainly perceived many of these stones built into the walls of the church; some of the largest serving for corner stones, and being perfectly square. Night overtook us groping about for antiquities, and we returned to the house reluctantly. At eight, we went to the cock-pit again, where were assembled all the beauty and fashion of Tezcuco. We saw one or two dances, and a great display of affectation and awkward graces in the figures; the women very ill dressed and rather ill looking, smoking

like their betters, and with the smoke curling gracefully out of their mouths and noses, looking round for admiration. We soon left the ball and returned to Campero's, where we passed a pleasant evening. One of his daughters played very well upon the piano, and they are all pretty, good-natured, amiable girls. The mother of this large family is still very fresh, and quite pretty.

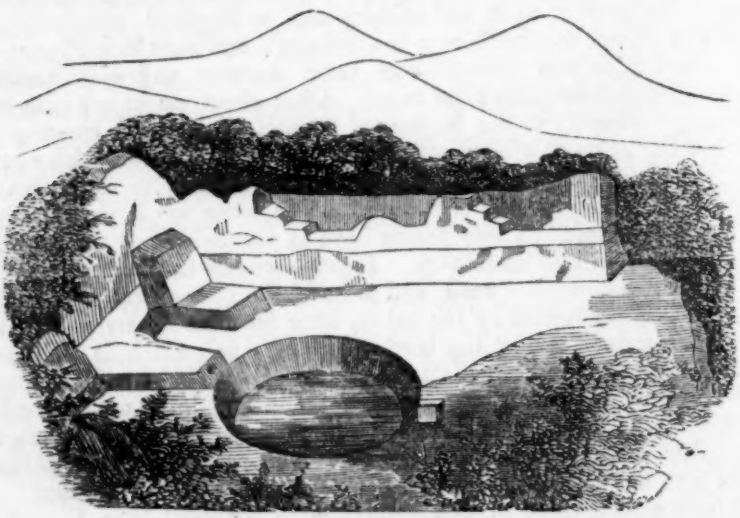
The next day, (December 26,) we went immediately after breakfast to the ruins of the palace, and viewed near them an arched passage for the water, said to be the work of the Indians. It is regularly arched and well built of square stones the size of bricks, cemented with the mortar so much used by the Indians in all their works. Some stones, with this cement, are among the specimens. On expressing doubts respecting the knowledge possessed by the Indians of the arch, I was taken to see a very perfect one found among the ruins of the palace. It was the door of a room which contained a stone urn. Unfortunately, the urn has been carried off. The good woman who owns this piece of ground, had four of the stones, which formed the perpendiculars of the old door, worked into a new door in her court-yard. To have placed the arch, would, she said, have left the door too low. The three stones were lying against the wall. We had them placed as they were originally found, and they formed a very flat arch. Of these stones, one was 5 feet 8 inches in length; the other 6 feet 3½ inches; their thickness is 1 foot 10 inches.

On our return to the house, we found the carriage ready to convey us to the mountain of Tezcucingo. We passed over a well cultivated plain. Not settled as in our country and in England, with cottages and farm houses scattered over the country; but more like France—large haciendas and villages, with their churches and white-washed houses, rising from among the trees. After about an hour's ride, we descended abruptly to the borders of a small stream, and crossing it, entered the gates of a large mill, built like most edifices in this country, with great solidity. We got out of the carriage to examine the canal and dam and works of the mill. The latter are, in the extreme, clumsy and simple. These people have as yet no idea of the modern improvements in mill machinery. Two tub wheels turn upright shafts, on which the stones are fixed, and most of the finer operations of bolting, &c., are performed by the baker, after the flour is carried to market. We walked along the border of the canal, which is well constructed of stone and mortar, to the dam. Here the water is precipitated over a height of about twenty feet, and falls into a natural basin, from whence it is conveyed to the mill. The surplus water, which, in the rainy season, is considerable, falls over precipitous and broken rocks into the bed of the river, a height of about twenty-five feet.

I have seen nothing in this country more beautiful than the walk along the bank of this canal. It is overhung on the left by steep rocks, with small shrubs and some large trees growing in the interstices; while on the right, the eye may either dwell upon the stream murmuring amidst rocks and shrubs, or range over a plain terminated by the hills that enclose the valley of Mexico on this side, and which are here overtopped by the snowy mountains.

Near the extremity of the canal, the owner has had a platform built

and surrounded with seats. It is overhung with trees, and the view is enchanting. We left this spot with reluctance, and proceeded on foot, under the guidance of an Indian cicerone, Domingo Zimenes, to cross the stream, by stepping from rock to rock. We soon gained the plain, which leads by a gentle ascent to the foot of the mountain of Tezeucingo. This plain is covered with long grass, which, at this season of drought, is dry and parched. Occasionally we find spots entirely bare, with fragments of pottery, splinters of obsidian, and small stones of porphyry. On our left were the villages of Purification and San Nicolos, and on our right the two San Diegos—the smaller distinguished by the Spanish diminutive San Diegilo. We reached the foot of Tezeucingo after an hour's walk. Our guide led the way up the western side of the hill, when, he said, we should see some doors of stone. After a fatiguing and steep ascent, about half way up to the summit, we reached the door we had been told of. It proved to be the mouth of a subterranean passage hewn in the rock. We descended about twelve or fifteen steps into the rock, until they turn suddenly to the left, so as to exclude all light. Having no candles or torches, we were obliged to abandon the attempt to go any further, and returned to the entrance. The rock through which this passage is cut, consists of crystals of horneblende and feldspar, which, although small, give it a beautiful appearance. On ascending a short distance higher, we came to a sort of terrace, about four feet wide, which led us to the bath of Montezuma. A projecting rock of extremely hard porphyry, has been cut out into a circular basin. There



BATH OF TEZCUSINGO.

is a channel to conduct the water from the basin, and it enters over its borders. A very commodious seat is chiseled out of the rock, and there is a sort of platform, with a wall or parapet on each side, all cut out of the same rock. Two steps descend into the basin. The view from the basin is very extensive, commanding the valley and lake of

Tezcuco and the city of Mexico. This curious work is as perfectly wrought as any thing of the sort can be, and leaves us to wonder at the skill and ingenuity of the Indians, who hollowed out so perfect a circular basin of the hardest rock, with tools of obsidian and composition metal.

We pursued our walk along the terrace, on which are to be seen the ruins of the conduit which conveyed the water to the bath; and not far from it, there is an artificial embankment, along which the aqueduct was continued across a small valley, and which connects Tezeucingo with the opposite mountain, where there is a fountain of water. We followed our guide up to the summit, when he said there was another door. It proved to be a mass of porphyry, apparently cut down by the hand of man. Here, as in many other places on the hill, we found plaster made of lime and pounded "Tetzontli," amygdaloid; the surface finely polished, and some of it appearing to have been painted. Of this we brought off some specimens. As we descended on the other side of the hill, we came unexpectedly upon the ruins of another edifice. Among other vestiges, were seven steps cut in a rock of red porphyry, still as perfect as the day they were finished. We continued to wind down the hill by a precipitous descent, clinging to the bushes in order to prevent ourselves from slipping over the loose stones, until we reached the plain. We returned to the mill of Flores, where we had left our coach, not a little fatigued, for we were loaded with specimens of plaster and stones.

At half-past four we were seated at the hospitable table of Campero, where we were well received by all save a fat priest, who looked somewhat sad at having been kept so long beyond his usual dinner hour. He heard our narrative with a sneer, and looked upon our specimens with utter contempt.

After dinner, we took a walk with our host to see a house where, as he told us, there was an extensive crust of ancient mortar. We found in front of the house the crust he had described about four inches thick, extending a great distance, probably the ground floor of one of those vast palaces described by Cortes. In one place an excavation had been made under it for a hog-stye and hen-house. Such is the strength and consistency of this ancient mortar or concrete, that large square blocks had been cut from it and laid for flags in the court-yard of the house opposite. These looked so like stone, that one of my companions broke off a piece in order to ascertain the truth of the old lady's story. It proved both the truth of the good dame and the irritability of her temper; and we were fain to walk off, leaving her scolding at a round rate at our presumption.

December 27th.—Early in the morning we walked again over the ruins of the supposed palace, and again admired the excellence of the workmanship, and the immense size of the stones, which must have been brought for some distance, as the nearest quarry is more than a mile from Tezcuco.

After breakfast we walked to the artificial mound at the entrance of the gate of Tezcuco. It appears to be the remains of one of the many large pyramids that are scattered over the country, and which were, most probably, temples and sepulchres. This had been cut

through by the Spaniards in several places, in making the ditch which formed the defences of the town against the attacks of the Mexicans during the late revolutionary war. We were enabled, from this circumstance, to see the different strata of mortar and "adobes," or unburnt bricks. There is a layer of mortar about three inches thick for every four feet of adobes, intermixed with stone, and in parts are seen vertical insertions of plaster. In this manner the whole mound is formed, from its foundation to its summit. It is of great extent, and from the basis of the mountain on the opposite side, the foundation appears to extend very far beyond the ditch and the external appearance of the mound.

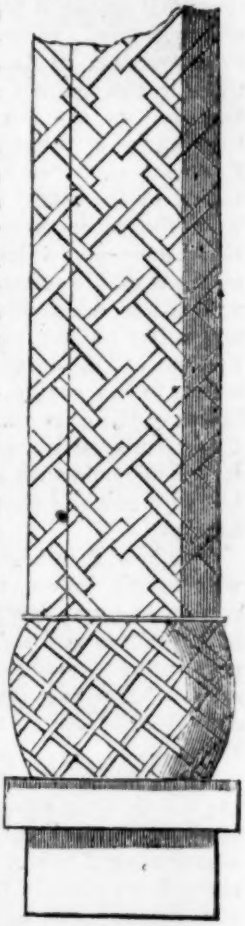
On our return, we found the carriage in readiness to convey us to the Ahuahuetes, a square of very large cypress trees, (*Cupressus Disticha*,) where, it is supposed, there was formerly a country palace. We found, about a league from the city, a square of about eight acres, surrounded by some of the largest cypress trees I ever saw. In front is an open space, raised much above the level of the surrounding country, of the size of the square, from each side of which the trees extend out some distance, so as to flank this space, on which, it is supposed, the house was situated. Behind the square is a narrow avenue of the same trees, with their upper limbs interlocked.

In the evening we were at a grand ball given by one of the principal merchants of the place, from which I was soon smoked out.

December 28th.—We set out after an early breakfast, and passed over rather a barren tract of country to the hacienda of San Antonio. This is a very fine estate, once the property of the Jesuits—and is another evidence of the judgment, industry, and wealth of that order. All the lands are so situated as to be irrigated, and the water is retained by a dam of some miles in extent, built of stone and mortar, and of great strength and solidity.

From San Antonio, we passed several smaller haciendas to San Juan de Teotihuacan. Some time before we reached this town, we came in sight of the Teorallis or pyramid of Teotihuacan. Viewed from this distance, they appeared in much more perfect preservation than that of Cholula, although not so large. We kept them in view until we arrived at Otumba, a small town, which like San Juan is in ruins from the effects of the revolution—they having been both often taken and retaken in the civil wars of that period. We were provided with a letter for a respectable inhabitant of this place, but unfortunately, he had gone to see the cock fight at Tezcuco. We drove therefore to the 'Meson' of Otumba. I need add nothing to my former description of Mesons. This is one of the worst. As it was yet light we sallied forth to view the columns talked of by former travellers. No one could give us any account of where they were to be found. The alcalde was absent, and after inquiring in vain for some time, we went at length to the house of the vicario, who told us that the only column he had ever heard of, was one that had stood formerly in the square—but which was thrown down, broken up and used for building in 1821—that there was still a fragment left in the square, which we might see. We set out under the guidance of the old vicario, who on the way entertained me with an account of the pyramid of Cholula, it

was, he said, a tower of immense height, which the foolish Indian idolaters built to reach to heaven, and which God in his wrath destroyed —fragments of it being scattered to the distance of several leagues—another tower of Babel. In the middle of the square, we found the broken column, not adorned with hieroglyphics as we had been informed, but ornamented by diamond figures interlaced. It is of red sand-stone and well cut. While we were taking the dimensions and making a sketch of it, we were surrounded by the men of the town, who flocked out of their houses and shops to see what we were about. They were extremely civil and communicative, and offered to show us other curious stones. We accompanied them to several houses, but what they deemed works of antiquity, all proved to be of more recent date.



COLUMN IN OTUMBA.
Height of the column 8 feet 2 inches.
Diameter 1 foot 9½ inches.
Length of a mutilated portion 7 feet 2½ inches.

We returned to our Meson, so I must call it—for a meson is not an inn nor a caravansery, nor any thing but a meson. After having made an arrangement with a young man to procure horses for us to go the next day to Zempoalla, we had our camp beds put up, and made preparations for passing the night. While thus employed, we received the visit of one of the companions of our rambles about the town, who brought with him the administrador of a neighboring hacienda. With a kindness and hospitality, characteristic of the people of this country, they came to offer to accompany us to Zempualla on the next day, and the administrador assured us, that he would send us horses early in the morning from the hacienda. His friend engaged to satisfy the young man, who was to have accompanied us, and we accepted their kind offers.

December 29th.—Punctual to the time, at seven o'clock, the horses were in the court yard, and our two friends mounted and ready to accompany us. We proceeded for about a league and an half through maguey fields to the hacienda of Soapayuca, belonging to the Conde de Tesse, an old Spaniard, now residing in Madrid. The house is large and commodious—the granaries very extensive, and the chapel rich and in good taste. It is very creditable to the different governments that have ruled this country since the revolution, that none have ever proposed even the confiscation of the property of the old Spaniard.

From Soapayuca, we rode through more and more maguey fields to the hacienda of Ometusco—belonging to Don Ignacio de Adaled, a wealthy Mexican. The buildings of this hacienda had likewise been destroyed in the wars of the revolution, and nothing but the dwelling

house has been rebuilt in a style almost of magnificence. The principal drawing-room is furnished with two chimnies, a luxury much wanted in these high regions. Here we found an excellent and substantial breakfast prepared for us, to which after a ride of four leagues, we did ample justice. We walked about the hacienda and examined all the improvements made and to be made in the building. It is like all those in the country, on a very extensive scale. This is a pulque estate, and we saw the whole process of making the liquor from the "caponing" of a maguey to the drinking of the fermented juice. We first went about the field looking for one fit to be cut, which is ascertained by the center leaves. These are always firmly united in a cone until they drop: a short time before the plant shoots out its flower stalk, these center leaves become comparatively thin, and the thorns on those of the interior are black. In this state, we found a maguey and it was determined to capon it although a plant will yield more and better pulque, when cut in the spring or summer. The operator first cut off the internal edge of the large leaves, so as to make an entrance to the center, free from thorns. He then stripped down the leaves of the cone and broke them off until nothing remained but the flower stalk, which was removed with a wooden paddle. He next enlarged the hole with an iron instrument, the size of a small crow-bar, but with one end flattened and sharpened so as to cut—a pendecular hatchet.

The hole at last had the appearance of a small tube. This he filled with the dry leaves of an old maguey, and we were told that it must remain so for at least four months, when the leaves are removed, the hole cleansed and the juice taken out twice a day. After seeing this process, we proceeded to a plant in full yield. The hole we found stopped up with a large stone to prevent the cattle, wild animals or dogs from drinking the honey water, as the juice is called, before it ferments.

The laborer, who collects the juice, carries a skin on his back with the mouth hanging over his shoulder—a large calabash having a horn fixed to the small end and a hole in the large—this serves as a syphon —and a small iron scraper. When the stone was removed, we found about three pints in the cavity which the Peon, putting down the horn end of his syphon and applying his mouth to the hole in the large end of it, soon sucked up and poured into the skin at his back. He then carefully and gently scraped off the surface of the cavity, so as to open the pores anew and replaced the stone. This operation is repeated regularly twice a day. When the skin is full, it is laid down and another taken—and at a given hour the asses are brought into the field and loaded with the well-filled skins. They are unloaded in a large room and the honey water is measured and poured into vats formed of hides, stretched over four sticks. If the fresh juice is put into a separate vat, it requires to remain six or eight days to ferment before it is fit for use—but the custom is to pour it on lees and to mix it with old pulque—and in that manner it is fit to drink or to be transported to market the next day. This hacienda yields a net revenue of $15,000 a year, from the sale of pulque alone.

After being made thoroughly to understand the art and mystery of

making pulque, we mounted our horses and proceeded to Zempualla. After riding about two leagues we came in sight of the arches of which we had heard so much. They were built to convey water across a deep valley in order to supply Otumba and the intervening country, which is without a single stream. Both the large haciendas we saw being supplied with water by means of a large cistern and reservoirs. This is a work as stupendous as it is useless. The valley is crossed by sixty-seven arches. The center arch, which from its great height is made double, is 122½ feet high. The others diminish in height on each side as they recede from the center, the last arch being not more than 10 feet high. The scaffolding used for constructing the arches was composed of adobes' for several of them still remain filling up the interior of the arches. The whole of the aqueduct is built with such solidity, that not a stone has given way in any part of it. This work is by some attributed to the Jesuits and by others to a community of friars of the order of San Francisco. The aqueduct where it is continued on a level with the soil, is completed quite to Otumba and a small sum would put the whole in order. All that was really required where this extensive work stands, was an aqueduct of a single arch to cross the stream that flows in a ravine along the valley, for the height of the hill where the source rises is much greater than the level along which it was intended to convey the water. After passing some time in admiring and examining these arches, we again mounted our horses, and threaded our way among the maguey plants back to Otumba, where we arrived a little after night fall.

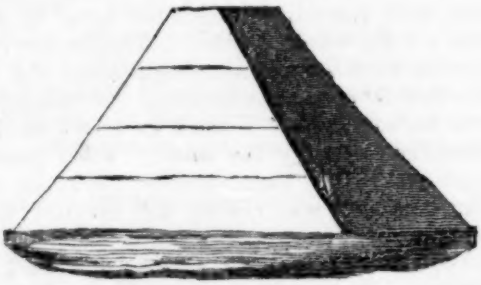
December 30.—The next day we were on horseback early, on our way to the pyramids Teotihuacan. We rode through fields of good land but very badly cultivated in corn and barley, to the village of San Miguel. Here we left our horses, and ascended the smaller of the two great pyramids. It is constructed like all we have seen of adobes stones, and here and there, layers of cement. On the summit we found the ruins of an old building, evidently, from the form and from the mortars, built since the conquest. From the top of this pyramid the view extends over the lake of Tezcuco, embracing Mexico and the heights that shut in the valley on every side. I was much struck with the order in which these pyramids were placed. Immediately in front of that on which we stood, there was a circular space surrounded by smaller tumuli of the same regular shape with one in the center—opposite was a large street having on each side tumuli of the same form and size. Extending far along and near the extremity but out of the line, stands the largest pyramid. This has a terrace, nearly half way between its base and summit about 5 feet wide. On one side of the circular place d'armes, we were shown a large stone ten feet and 3 inches long and five feet one inch wide, symmetrically cut out of the hardest basalt, with crystals of feldspar, resembling the stone of sacrifice. It appeared to me to be an idol with the carved side down. We had no means to turn this immense stone, and after taking its dimensions, examined tumuli on each side of the street. All that we saw bore traces of having been covered with some building—and on one were distinguished the size and form of some of the apartments.

The large pyramid offered nothing new—it is covered with fragments of pottery and wrought obsidian, and is a perfect and regular pyramid of vast size. Our time did not permit us to take the dimensions—but they are to be found in Humboldt. We found our carriage waiting for us in the square of San Juan, and taking leave of our kind conductors, we drove over the bed of the lake, which at this season is dry, and proceeded on our way to the capital where we arrived in the evening.

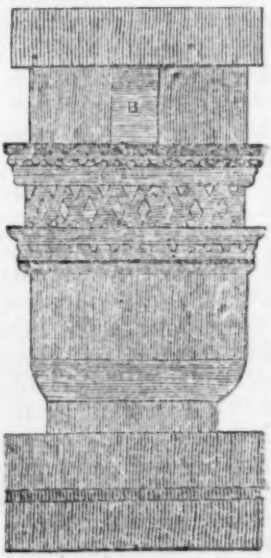
NOTE FURNISHED THE WRITER BY CONDE DE VIDUA.

Près de San Juan de Teotihuacan au N. E. de Lac de Tezcuco, et dans les dependences de la Vallèe d'Otumba on voit deux Teocalli de forme piramidale etonnants par leur grandeur.

Le plus grand de presente comme dans la figure encontre, et à pea près avec les memes proportions.



Je na me rappele pas ses dimensions donnees par Hamboldt; mais j'ai jugé le coté de sa base d'environ 750 pieds anglais.



Il s'appelloit en langue Azteque Tonatiah Ytzaqual, ou maison de Soleil; l'autre plus petit, et à peu de distance de premier meztle Ytzaqual, (maison de la lune.) Aux environs de ce dernier on remarque un gran bloc de porphire que à la premiere vue on juge informe; mais examine plus attentivement on y decouvre les traces d'une image du Soliel, c'est à dire un visage entourè par des rayons, le mème signe de convention par le aquel les anciens peuples du vieux monde le representaient. Une seconde masse dn même porphire et que probablement suivait de suport à la premiere se rencontre à peu de distance de celle-ci. Elle est de la forme et des dimensions donnèes par la figure. La partie est un enforcemant d' à peu près un pouce. L'autre est tout à fait plâtè, quoique ses cotes soient faconès à doucine renverseè comme le marque la figure. L'epaissaue de celte pièrre est le même que sa largeur.

Art. II.—SILK AND THE SILK CULTURE.

ORIGIN OF THE SILK INDUSTRY; EARLY HISTORY; SKETCHES OF PROGRESS; PECULIAR VIEWS AND PRACTICES OF THE CHINESE IN THE PRESERVATION OF EGGS; CULTIVATION OF THE MULBERRY TREE; CONSTRUCTION OF FADING APARTMENTS; MANAGEMENT OF THE SILK WORM; COCOONERIES, ETC., ETC., ILLUSTRATED BY CUTS; INTRODUCTION OF SILK CULTURE IN OTHER COUNTRIES; HISTORY OF SILK IN THE UNITED STATES; NATURAL FACILITIES OF THE U. S. FOR MAKING SILK; ADVANTAGES OF SOUTHERN AND WESTERN STATES; COMMUNICATIONS FROM PRACTICAL MEN; GENERAL SUGGESTIONS ON THE SUBJECT.

[CONTINUED.]

THE history of the silk culture in the United States—which is but the continuation of a series of efforts to establish it in England—commenced long before the discovery of this continent by Columbus. It is appropriate, therefore, to preface what we have to say under this head, by an allusion to the introduction of the silk trade into England, and their repeated attempts to make cocoons.

No sooner had the elegance of silk, as an article of apparel, began to attract attention, than the whole energy of the government was bent upon the introduction of its manufacture as a new industry for their own people; and if any one feature of British legislation has been more prominent than others, it has been the incomparable perseverance with which they have fostered and perfected their own manufactures.

Their example in this respect is worthy the imitation of all other governments, and *above* all of our own. To this spirit, more than all other causes combined, are they indebted for the present extent and perfection of their manufactures. In nothing has this been more marked than in reference to *silk*. As early as 1180, during the reign of Henry II., the beauty of silk began to be admired and coveted.

We are informed that, at the marriage celebration of Margaret, daughter of Henry III., with Alexander III., of Scotland, no less than 1,000 English knights were apparelled in cointises of precious silk.

The first example of the restrictive policy of Great Britain, was an act, in 1363, to encourage the manufacture of silk. This act restricted manufacturers, merchants, &c., to the making and dealing in one particular kind of goods, with an exception in favor of females engaged in the manufacture of silk.

In 1454, an act was passed, prohibiting for five years the importation of every article of silk which they were capable of making themselves. In 1463, this statute was extended to several other articles, such as laces, ribbons, fringes, silk twined, silk embroidered, tires, purses, &c. In 1482, the encouragement afforded by this act was withdrawn, and the consequence was, the manufacturers were at once thrown out of employment and reduced to want.

So disastrous was the effect of this repeal, that it was speedily renewed, to continue for four years.

The business thus protected, progressed rapidly; and in 1508, under Henry VII., an act was passed, prohibiting every article of silk, wrought either alone or with other stuffs, which their own people could make. The violation of this law was forfeiture.

In the reign of James I., silk throwsters and dyers were introduced, and broad weavers imported from the continent.

In 1629, the business was so far advanced as to be considered of *national value*, and entitled to an act of incorporation, which was passed, under the name of "The Masters, Wardens, Assistants, and Commonalty of Silk Throwsters!" Continued advances were made, but the machinery employed was very imperfect, and they were mainly dependent upon Italian throwsters for organized and other fine silks, up to the year 1718, when a young and enterprising artisan, Mr. John Lombe, of Derby, undertook an enterprise, at great hazard, by which he hoped to gain a knowledge of the silk throwsting machinery of Piedmont.

Dr. Lardner has the following account of this adventure of young Lombe:

"There were three brothers, Thomas, Henry, and John; the first was one of the Sheriffs of London, at the accession of George II., on which occasion he was knighted.

"About this time the Italians had introduced great improvements in the art of throwing silk, and rendered it impossible for the Lombes, who were engaged in the silk throwing business in London, to bring their goods into the market upon any thing like terms of equality with the Italians. The younger brother was a lad at that time. By the laws of the Italians, it was made death for any one to discover any thing connected with the silk manufacture; with this addition, the forfeiture of his goods, and his person and name to be painted outside the prison walls, hanging to the gallows by one foot, with an inscription, to remain as an indelible mark of infamy.

"Young Lombe, however, was not deterred. On his arrival, and before he became known, he went, accompanied by a friend, to see the silk works. No person was admitted except when the machinery was in action, and even then he was hurried through the rooms with the most jealous caution. The celerity of the machinery rendered it impossible for Mr. Lombe to comprehend all the dependencies and first springs of so extensive and complicated a work. He went with various persons in various habits, as a gentleman, a priest, or a lady, and he was very generous with his money; but he could never find an opportunity of seeing the machinery put in motion, or of giving to it that careful attention which was his object. Despairing of obtaining adequate information from such cursory inspection, he bethought himself of associating with some clergymen; and being a man of letters, he succeeded in ingratiating himself with the priest who confessed the family to which the works belonged. He seems to have opened his plans, partly at least, to this person, and it is certain he found means to obtain his co-operation. According to the scheme adopted, Mr. Lombe disguised himself as a poor youth in want of employment. The priest then introduced him to the directors of the work, and gave him a good character for honesty and diligence, and described him as inured to hardships. He accordingly engaged as filature boy, to superintend a spinning engine.

"His mean appearance procured him accommodation in the place which his design made most acceptable to him.

"While others slept, he was awake, and diligently employed in his arduous and dangerous undertaking. He had possessed himself of a

dark lantern, tinder box, wax candles, and a case of mathematical instruments. In the day time, these were secreted in a hole under the stairs where he used to sleep. He then went on making drawings of every part of this grand and useful machinery. The priest often inquired after his boy, and through his agency, Lombe conveyed his drawings to Messrs. Glover & Unwins, at Leghorn, the correspondents of the Lombes, who made models from them, which were despatched to England in bales of silk.

"After Lombe had completed his design, he remained at the mill until some English ship should be on the point of sailing for England. When this happened, he left the works and hastened on board.

"Meanwhile, his absence had occasioned suspicion, and an Italian brig was despatched in pursuit; but the English vessel happily proved the better sailer of the two, and he escaped. It was said that the priest was put to the torture; but another account states that after Mr. Lombe's return to England, an Italian priest was much in his company, and it is the opinion that this was the priest in question.

"The common account of Mr. Lombe's death is, that the Italians, exasperated at the injury done their trade, sent over to England an artful woman, who associated with Mr. Lombe's Italian servants engaged in his works, and, having gained over one, poison was administered, of which, it is said, Mr. Lombe died on the premises, on the 16th November, 1722, in the twenty-ninth year of his age."

On his return to England, he obtained a patent, securing to him the right to use and dispose of the same for fourteen years.

"The first machine constructed from his drawings, was of immense capacity, and when completed, was capable of turning out 318,504,960 yards of organzine daily.

The building erected for this machinery was five stories high, and 660 feet in length. So much time was consumed in erecting the building and completing the machinery, that Mr. Lombe applied for an extension of his patent; which, however, was refused, on account of its great public utility, but at the same time Parliament voted him the sum of £14,000, in consideration of his eminent services.

From this time the business moved steadily forward, continually increasing in interest as it advanced to perfection.

In the year 1783, their manufactures of silk were valued at £3,350,000

From evidence placed before Parliament in 1821, we collect the following statistics:

There had been imported, for several years, from Bengal, China, Italy, and Turkey, an average of at least 1,800,000 pounds of raw silk, under a heavy duty; and subsequently to this, for eight years, the importation of raw and thrown silk amounted to nearly three and a half millions of pounds annually.

The number of looms employed exceeded 40,000, giving employment to a vast number of operatives, whose aggregate wages, at reduced rates, exceeded £3,000,000.

It was then calculated that nearly half a million of people, directly or indirectly, derived their maintenance from the labor created by this manufacture. The amount actually paid to persons employed in the various branches of the business, was set down at £10,000,000.

In 1825, there were 226 throwsting mills, running 1,180,000 spindles. At Spitalfield alone, there were 17,000 looms in operation.

Since the above facts were elicited, there has been an uninterrupted increase in every department of the business, and it has continued to be the subject of constant Parliamentary watchfulness and guardianship. Every exigency has been provided for. Statutes have been made, modified or repealed, to correspond with its interests; and what is the result? Just what it would be here, or in any other country where a like policy is pursued. The *perfection* and *beauty* of English silks are the *admiration* and *envy* of the world. Under such a "*selfish system*," manufactures must flourish; without it, neither silk nor any thing else can thrive.

These things have their infancy, and need years of constant vigilance before strength enough can be acquired to withstand the competition of older countries, and maintain an independent existence.

As early as 1608, the question of producing a supply of raw silk from their own soil appears to have occupied the attention of Great Britain. It had then recently been introduced into France, to the great profit of that nation; and king James I., who was then on the throne, saw no reason why his own people might not prosecute the industry with similar success and advantage.

His recommendations met with the approval of the inhabitants; and in 1620, there were a large number of mulberry plantations in a flourishing condition; but the humidity of their climate opposed every attempt to naturalize the worm, and the whole matter has long since been abandoned.

These failures at home induced King James to turn his attention to his colonies in America. Accordingly, trees and eggs were forwarded, and competent instructors sent from Europe to Virginia, where the first effort was made.

A writer in 1609 says: "There are silke wormes and plenty of mulberie trees, whereby ladies, gentlewomen, and little children, (being set in the way to do it,) may be all imploied with pleasure, making silke comparable to that of Persia, Turkey, or any other." No doubt was then entertained of the practicability of silk culture in Virginia. So important was it considered, that measures were resorted to, to compel the colonists to commence the business. A penalty of ten pounds of tobacco was imposed on every planter who should fail to plant ten mulberry trees upon every hundred acres of land in his possession. The same act gave a premium of four thousand pounds as an inducement to commence the business; and in the succeeding year, ten thousand pounds of tobacco were to be awarded to the person who should export raw silk amounting to £200 in value.

The cultivation of tobacco, however, obtained the preference, and little progress seems to have been made in silk, though it was continued for many years, to some extent, and it is stated that the coronation robe of Charles II., in 1660, was made of Virginia silk.

By far the most important and successful attempt made under the patronage of Great Britain, was in Georgia. The climate was every way congenial and the colonists were anxious for the undertaking. So elated were they with the idea, that they actually dreamed of supplying all Europe from that single colony.

The substantial facts connected with the Georgia experiments are all that we can give. The most full and authentic account which has been published is found in Harris's Memoirs of Oglethorpe. The first inducement offered to the settlers of Georgia to encourage the production of silk, was the appropriation of government lands for the supply of the best mulberry trees—and additional grants to those who should plant a certain number of trees. This bounty was offered for ten years.

So intent were the authorities upon having the silk industry uppermost in the minds of the people, that the public seal had on one side of it a representation of silk worms, with the words, "NON SIBI, SED ALLIS," *not for ourselves but for others.* The Colonial Trustees introduced silk worm eggs, trees and seeds liberally. In 1732 they engaged a professed silk reeler from Piedmont, M. Amatis, who with several Italian reelers, whom he brought with him, commenced reeling some very fine cocoons raised at the trustees garden, which gave silk equalling in beauty the best of French or Italian production. They were soon, however, interrupted by a difficulty among their reelers; who treacherously destroyed the machinery, trees and eggs, and then fled to Carolina.

The trustees had become too well satisfied of their abilities to make silk, to abandon their work here. M. Camuse and his wife, Italians, with their two children and two other persons, were engaged for six years to take charge of a *filature* at a salary of £520 per annum, besides a dwelling house and garden.

The first silk produced in Georgia, (eight pounds) was carried to England by General Oglethorpe in 1734. Another shipment was made the following year, and the silk manufactured into organzine by Sir Thomas Lombe, who was so delighted with its quality and beauty that, he immediately exhibited it to Queen Caroline, who was equally pleased, and directed that it should be woven into a dress pattern for her Majesty's wearing. At its completion it was appropriately presented by Mr. Booth the weaver, accompanied by Gen. Oglethorpe and Sir Thomas Lombe. At the next birth day of the king, Queen Caroline appeared at the levee in a full court dress of Georgia silk. Governor Oglethorpe returned to America greatly encouraged, and adopted immediate means for a more vigorous prosecution of the business. A number of persons were sent to the filature for instructions in reeling, and a large amount of eggs preserved for the ensuing season. In March, 1736, the Governor, through the Rev. Mr. Bolzius, presented one mulberry tree to every inhabitant.

The Saltburgers, at Ebenezer, entered fully into the views of Oglethorpe, and were forward in carrying out his suggestions, and the result shows remarkable success. The influence of Mr. Bolzius, though he confessed himself disinterested was decidedly favorable, and he did much to induce the families of his parish to cooperate with the trustees. The indifference of this excellent man soon disappeared, for in 1742, we find him one of the most zealous advocates for silk culture in Georgia. Two reels were erected near his house, and the reeling of cocoons commenced with gratifying success.

Mr. Camuse saw this, and through envy, withheld the most essential

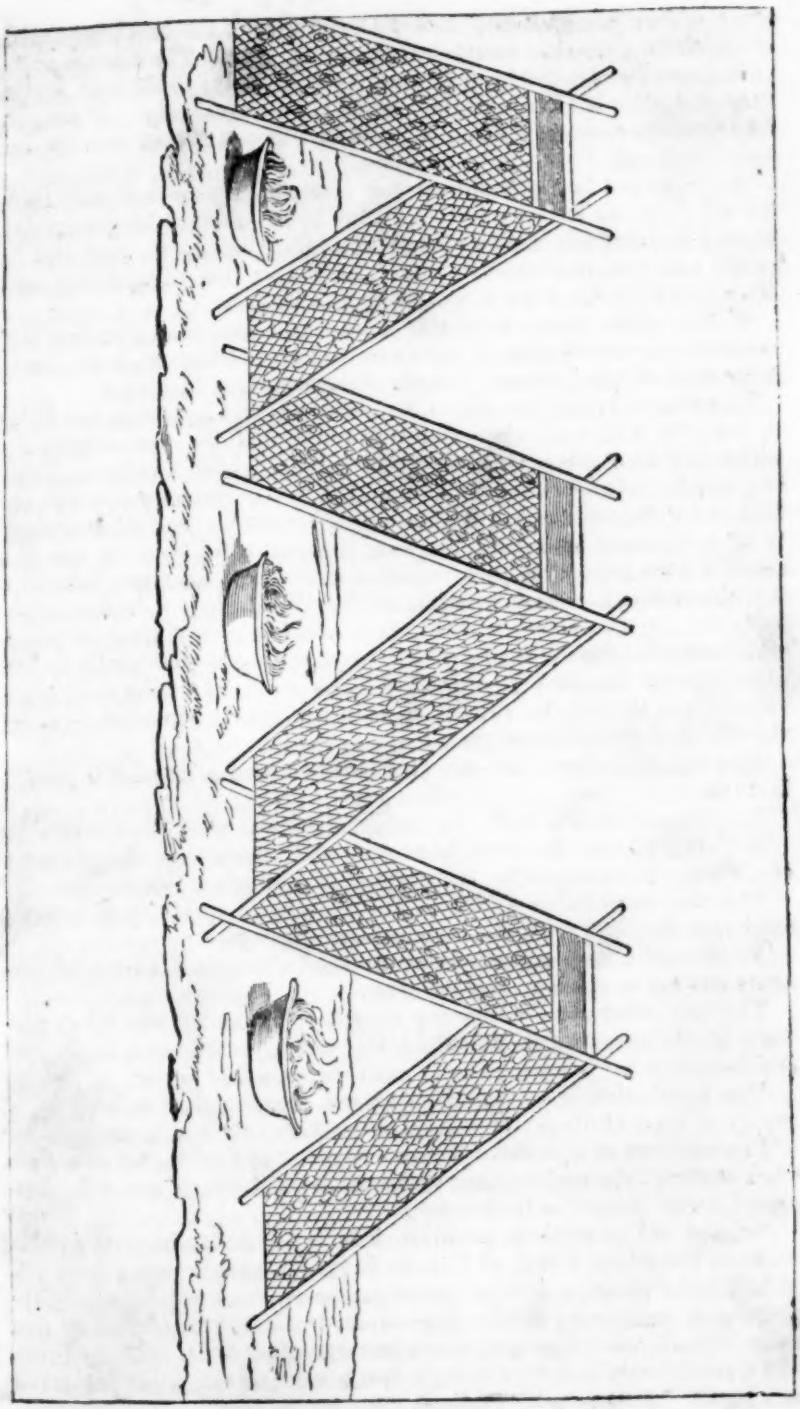
knowledge from the women sent to him from Ebenezer for instruction in reeling. The Germans proceeded with unabating activity, increasing their stock of trees every year. In 1749 the trustees offered a liberal bounty to every woman who should make herself mistress of reeling during the year; and at the same time gave Mr. Bolzius permission to erect sheds for reeling, which was done, and suitable machines provided. Fourteen young women claimed the bounty offered, and engaged in reeling at the filature the next season. Over one thousand pounds of cocoons were raised, and the silk reeled in so superior a manner as to command a higher price in London than that from any other country. The growth of the mulberry at Ebenezer must have been remarkable; for we see it stated that trees planted in front of the parsonage, at ten years of age, measured nearly four feet in circumference. Judge Meigs remarked a few days since, when conversing on this subject, that, in passing through Ebenezer about forty years ago, his attention was attracted by the uncommon luxuriance of the mulberry trees. At the request of the passengers the coach was stopped to allow them to collect some of the fruit of these trees, which was then ripe. The judge says "the berries were as large as my thumb and very fine." Many of the trees planted by the Saltburgers, more than fifty years before, were then standing apparently in their prime.

Mr. Pickering Robinson, and James Habersham, in August, 1750, were appointed "commissioners to promote more effectually the silk culture." Mr. Robinson arrived at Savannah in the following December. The first act of the Commissioners was the erection of a public filature which should serve as a normal school for the whole province, from which to send on competent persons to manage private filatures, which it was supposed would soon follow as necessary to complete success.

A large building for this purpose was undertaken in March, 1751, and on the 8th of the May following was in complete operation.

Six thousand three hundred pounds of cocoons were sent to the filature this year, of which two thousand came from Ebenezer, and the remainder from Whitfield's orphan house.

Mr. Robinson devoted himself arduously to the duties of his appointment, proving very satisfactorily to the trustees that the time he had spent in the filatures of France, whither they had sent him, had been well improved in learning "the mysteries of silk winding." Mr. R's engagement with the trustees was for a single year, but he was retained a second year by the local authorities at the earnest solicitation of his associate, Mr. Habersham, who thus speaks of him. "I think him the most prudent, as well as the most capable person, I ever knew, to undertake such a work, and if he could be continued here, I doubt not, that he would turn out a number of well instructed reelers, who would be able to conduct filatures at Ebenezer, Augusta and other parts of the province." Mr. Robinson was appointed an assistant in the government and strongly urged to remain, which he refused to do unless permanent encouragement were extended to the culture of silk, for at least fourteen years. He returned to England in 1752, when his place was supplied by Joseph Ortobughe—a native of Pied-



mont, and an accomplished reeler. Certificates of the excellent quality of their silk continued to reach them every year. The filature at Savannah was destroyed by fire on the 4th of July, 1758, with several thousand pounds of cocoons, and much of the machinery. During the four years preceding this, more than 21,000 pounds of cocoons had been received.

A larger and better building was immediately erected and ready for use early the ensuing spring. This house when no longer employed as a filature, was used as an assembly, or ball room, and also for public and religious meetings, and later, as a dwelling house until March 25th, 1839, when it was destroyed by fire.

Within eight years from this time little less than one hundred thousand pounds of cocoons were received at the filature, a very large proportion of which, came from the Saltburgers at Ebenezer.

Unfortunately, at the very time when public confidence was fixing in favor of silk, and when the continuance of the encouragements which had been given for a few years preceding, bid fair to constitute it a staple; *changes* were made in the prices paid for cocoons, old bounties withdrawn and new ones enacted—until a general uncertainty and stagnation ensued. Even at Ebenezer the business was at a standstill for some time, and required uncommon exertions to revive it; but under the administration of Mr. Wertsch, a patriotic magistrate, the German people were again induced to give it their attention which they continued to do for several years, sending annually to England several hundred pounds of the raw material. The next interruption was that of the revolution; since which it has never been revived to any profitable account.

The last silk offered for sale at Savannah, was a lot of 200 pounds in 1790.

The impression left upon the public mind was altogether favorable.

A public filature for a while existed at Philadelphia, the property of a company organised for the purpose of promoting silk culture.

This was established about 1770, and a large quantity of cocoons were soon received from the surrounding country.

Dr Franklin took an active part in this enterprise. This establishment was never opened after the war.

The only other place where any very decided action was taken previous to the war, was at Mansfield, Ct., where the business in its several branches has been continued until within a few years.

The production of cocoons has ceased from neglect to keep up a supply of good mulberry trees. Much sewing silk is still made there.

The business at Mansfield has proved very profitable, for at a time when most of the surrounding towns were insolvent, it was unembarrassed—with money in its treasury.

No man in Connecticut manifested so much active interest in this cause as President Stiles, of Yale College. His experiments began in 1758, by the planting of three white mulberry trees which he very appropriately named A, B, C. These trees in the course of four or five years became very fine and commenced bearing fruit. Every berry was carefully collected by the Dr.'s own hands and the seeds preserved as a legacy for coming generations.

In 1765, this alphabetical nursery had extended to K, of fine growing trees, and a considerable number of worms had been fed. As soon as a sufficiency of seeds had been produced the Dr. took a journey through the country, and distributed them to many; exacting great care in their treatment, and the return of a certain proportion of trees to him, when they had attained a proper age for transplanting.

This nursery at Yale College, was emphatically the "A, B, C," of silk culture in New England.

President Stiles continued his experiments with unabated interest for nearly forty years, and there is now in the Library of Yale College, a manuscript copy of a work on silk written by him, embracing a vast amount of practical information, the results of his experience.

"It is exactly in the state in which the worthy Doctor left it, bound with the very string which his own hands had tied, and surrounded by all the veneration with which respect for the honored dead can invest it."

It has seldom been handled by any exeept his venerable cotemporary and particular friend, Dr. Daniel Stebbins; who is still living, at an advanced age, in the village of Northampton, Mass. It will be seen by a communication from his pen, in another place, that Dr. S. still retains his first love of the silk cause, and is doing much for its advancement. He has probably the best nursery of mulberry trees in the United States.

The writer has enjoyed many personal interviews with the Doctor on this subject, and has now in his letter case from him, more than sixty closely written communications of much value.

Since the close of the war no systematic efforts have been made to establish the silk industry amongst us; yet there has not been a single year in which good silk, to some extent, has not been produced; and in some states, in considerable amounts.

The most remarkable period in the whole history of silk in this country, commenced about 1830, at the introduction of the Morus Multicaulus.

An intense excitement pervaded the whole country, in which all classes were concerned. A few thousand buds of this tree were considered a fortune; and for a while, almost became a substitute for money.

Large companies were formed, books written by men without experience, mulberry orchards planted, cocooneries and factories erected, and the newspapers of the day filled with the prices current, and the record of transactions in mulberry stock.

This period was of brief duration, and was followed by a reaction which carried every thing before it, and left the very name of mulberry and silk the object of general contempt.

The particulars of this excitement are too fresh in the memory of all, to call for a further recital here.

On the whole, the *multicaulus mania*, as it is termed, was not without its benefits It was the means of introducing mulberry trees rapidly throughout the states, many of which fell into good hands, and are returning an ample reward for the labor bestowed upon them. It is true, prejudices were created which still fetter the silk cause; but

these must inevitably submit to the irresistable influences of successful experiments which are making throughout the country. An amount of sober reasoning public attention, is certainly turning to this subject, which, regulated by the experience of the past, and the information we are acquiring from the silk producing countries of the Old World; *must and will fix it as a distinguishing staple of American industry.*

The following communications will show that I am not alone in this opinion.

These letters have been written in reply to circulars issued early the last summer, calling for practical information on the subject whether favorable or otherwise.

A large number of responses have been made, the most important of which only are included in this publication. They will be accompanied by such remarks as their contents may suggest.

The first we shall give is from Dr. Stebbins. The great age of the author, being now more than 80 years old, will attach increased interest to his communication and credence to his suggestions. The Doctor has been one of the most active men of his day in all the leading enterprises of the age, and is perhaps one of the most eminent living illustrations of a life of temperance and industry.

His mental health, and the steadiness of his nerve, far surpass those of most persons of the present generation, of half his years.

A. C. Van Epps, Esq.

Dear Sir:—Having had the privilege of President Stiles' Silk Journal several years; in November, 1843, I prepared a supplement and returned it to Yale College, to the care of President Day, in testimony of my approbation and high estimation of the Journal—of its excellency, truthfulness, and accuracy, as applicable to the present day—and its evidence in favor of only *one early* crop and *open feeding* in New England, instead of a succession of crops in *our climate*, attended with sickly worms and inferior cocoons. The Silk Journal is a valuable document, in favor of the practicability and utility of silk culture in America. This, with the recent publication in New York, by Greeley & McElrath, compiled from the most approved and reliable sources, or Treatises on Silk Culture, with the report of the New England Silk Convention at Northampton, and the report of the American Institute, "*The Silk Question Settled*"—these, with other appliances, we hoped might elevate the silk cause beyond the reach of calumny.

Every part of the Silk Journal strengthens and confirms the position *now* approved by silk growers. There has, however, been an improvement in the variety of mulberries, mode of feeding—by use of Gill's cradles, (see cut and explanation, page 425,)—the application of the after foliage for making paper, using the inner bark of the annual sprouts for clothing, cordage, &c., and the perforated cocoons for spinning thread, knitting hosiery, gloves, and making durable clothing; and now, in 1847, using the expressed juice of the fruit to make *mulberry writing fluid;* all of which having been tested, can we doubt of ultimate success? We need not trench upon

the ordinary pursuits of the farmer, mechanic, merchant, or man of science. Silk culture, with the due protection of our general and state governments, may become of great national importance and remunerating to individual enterprise.

We annually import of raw and manufactured silks, nearly *twenty millions* worth, and two or six millions worth of rags and junk for paper; which is, in fact, encouraging the enterprise and support of foreign population, while we have the facility and ability to produce both. Such are our national habits of *industry*, *enterprise*, and *mechanical tact*, that we may venture to compete with the cheap labor and cheap living of any portion of the world, for we are *freemen*, enjoying the fruits of our industry.

What has been done in the culture and manufacture of wool and cotton, we may hope to approximate in the culture of silk, by the application of the same untiring industry and perseverance. "Nil est desperandum," should be the motto of silk growers.

With regard to the origin and high antiquity of silk, President Stiles advances an opinion from the lxx. of Genesis, Leviticus, Psalms, Proverbs, Ezekiel, &c. It has been said that lexicographers are of opinion that the Hebrew words *shesh* and *meshi*, and perhaps other Hebrew words, might be rendered silk, cotton, or fine linen, and is sometimes rendered silk, Ezekiel, xvi. 10; clothed thee with silk, Genesis, 41; 42.

In Egypt silk was known, and Joseph was probably clothed with silk. In the time of Solomon, too, (Prov. xxxi. 22) "her clothing silk and purple."

That the mulberry tree was known in Palestine, appears from 2d Samuel, 1st Chronicles, and the Psalms. The valley of Baca, too, may have been so called from the abundance of mulberries, the only tree adapted to make good silk, and is probably indigenous to all climates where silk can be made.

It is believed that the silk worm has been sustained and preserved in open weather from time immemorial, until domesticated by the officiousness of mankind. The silk worm has been exposed to all the vicissitudes of the seasons, summer and winter, so as to crop its food and wind the cocoons upon its favorite tree in the open air, probably from year to year, preserve its species, independent of exposure to devouring insects, vermin, and birds of the forest. This is corroborated by the testimony of *living* witnesses, also by written testitomy. They have been seen on trees in South Carolina, on Mt. Holyoke, in Massachusetts, and in the State of Maine. These facts show that a *remnant* may be preserved and propogated, pass through all the stages of mutation, from the egg to the cocoon, in the open air, from year to year, and perhaps for centuries.

Respecting the most approved kind of mulberries for feeding, and the management, experience has proved that the *Canton*, *Asiatic*, *Broosa*, and *Alpine*, should be headed down every spring, to augment the number of the stalks, the size and number of the leaf, as in China; and if as many pounds of bark silk may be taken from the stalks of an *acre* of close set mulberries as of flax, the culture of the mulberry for the bark silk, of itself, might be a profitable investment.

Quere.—Whether the mulberry tree, its seed, the knowledge of silk culture, originated in Palestine, Egypt, or Babylon, and thence found its way to China, in consequence of wars, removal of captives, dispersion, emigration or captivity of the Jews, Egyptians or Babylonians, or whether it originated in China, and thence passed into Europe, is an inquiry, of use only as evidence of its great antiquity. There is, however, a strong probability that silk was known in Palestine even before China became a nation, their fabulous history to the contrary notwithstanding; and the tradition of the stealthy introduction of silk worms' eggs from China into Italy or Greece, is problematical.

At an early period of settling the American continent by Europeans, the culture of silk was fostered, and with great expense introduced into Georgia, and thence gradually into the middle and eastern States, by the united exertions of President Stiles and Dr. Aspinwall, permanently established in New England, especially in Mansfield, Ct., and in Northampton, and continued to this time, 1847.

The culture of silk was attended with reasonable success and profit up to the revolution, and even during the war progressed slowly, yet surely; so that in the year 1839, it was estimated that Mansfield and vicinity raised *five tons* of raw silk, worth about $500,000.

The white mulberry has been in use until about 1830, when other varieties were introduced, having a larger leaf, and equally adapted to the nourishment of the silk worm and production of silk. Since the introduction of these varieties, there has been a gradual advance in growing silk, until intercepted by the mulberry speculation, so called.

Dr. Parker, of Canton, China, with a native Chinaman, having visited the writer, were shown the Canton foliage, which they recognized as the genuine kind used in China. Dr. Parker was pleased to see so large a leaf, and suggested that our climate was more congenial than even China, to develope so fine a leaf. But being shown a multicaulus leaf, the Chinaman, rapidly passing his fan over the leaf, exclaimed, "*too muchee big.*" During the tree speculation, so called, there was as much fancy about the kind and value of different kinds of trees, as of any fancy goods of the stores and shops.

There was one multicaulus tree from the south, purchased and set out in Northampton, which cost fourteen dollars, and lived two or three years. Young trees here of one season's growth sold usually from twenty-five cents to two dollars, and called cheap. During the tree speculation, there was a tree, the product of white mulberry seed, which developed a larger leaf than usual. Being transplanted from the nursery to a barn-yard near a public road, in Belchertown, it attracted the attention of a mulberry speculator, who gave the owner twenty-five dollars for the tree; removed it into Connecticut, and resold it for fifty dollars, to a man by the name of Sharp, and called the Sharp tree, who esteemed it so valuable that *one dollar per bud* was the price, and declined the offer of four hundred and fifty dollars for one-fourth of the tree, as stock property; but soon the tree lost its value, and was worth no more than an ordinary white mulberry.

During the mulberry excitement, some made, but more lost, money. Those who speculated on borrowed capital, depending on sales of mulberries, were induced to offer them at under prices. Those in similar situations adopted a similar course, underselling each other; convinced the public that trees were of little value, and finally ruined the business; identifying the mulberry bubble as one and the same with the real silk cause.

There were a few instances where money was made in the mulberry deal. An individual of my acquaintance, who had endorsed for his friend that failed, having a patch of Canton mulberries, from less than one-fourth of an acre sold enough to lift a mortgage and note, the principal and interest of which would have exceeded ten thousand dollars.

But unpropitious as the silk business may have been a few years past, the prospect, in 1847, is now brightening, and to meet the necessity of the case, trees must be multiplied to a great extent, but not in hot houses, as was done during the mulberry speculation; such forced plants, or even those raised in very warm climates, produce a sickly plant for New England. People were ready to take trees as fast as they could be raised, and no wonder that some were crazed, without considering that silk might be raised like other crops, and with as much certainty; that the transportation of a pound of raw silk worth five dollars, costs no more than a pound of flax or hemp; hence the avantage of silk over most other crops.

If two-thirds of the exports of Italy consist of raw and manufactured silks, and that in France silks are among the most productive sources of revenue, why may not the United States profit by the same course? Our habits of industry, perseverance, and mechanical tact, are in our favor. Our soil and climate are propitious, and why should we despair of being able to compete with any other people or nation in the culture of silk?

We have hundreds of miles of inland over which the wind passes to divest it of superfluous moisture, rendering the air pure and congenial to the health of worms. In Europe, the loss of silk worms is estimated at about fifty per cent.; but President Stiles estimated the loss in America at only twenty-five or thirty, under the then mode of feeding; but with the present improvements, need not exceed five or ten per cent, some say less.

That pure air and ample ventillation are essential to the delicate silk worm, has been proved by casting away sickly worms, and exposing them to the open weather and drenching rains, they have so recovered as to make fine cocoons.

Our early crops are generally more healthy, and make firmer cocoons, than those from a late crop. Gill's cradles are of great advantage to the silk grower. These, with other improvements of the present day, may be a saving of fifty per cent. to the silk grower. In New England, we may have early frost to injure the foliage: there is a remedy. By saving and drying foliage, pulverizing, moistening and sprinkling with wheat or rice flour, the worms will feed as readily as on green foliage.

Silk worms' eggs may be preserved, during winter, in any cool, dry

place. The ice-house may be too moist, unless the eggs be enclosed in dry boxes.

Among all the varieties of eggs, the pea nut is the best, having less floss and greater length of fibre.

It is humiliating and wholly unnecessary for us to contribute so much, annually, for the article of silk, which is an indirect way to support the population of other countries. If we must support foreigners, why not do it for those who are flocking to our shores to engage in agricultural pursuits in the far west? Let us interest them in the culture of silk. They may be so far from cash markets, that the expenses might render ordinary crops of little value.

The object of the foregoing is to preserve a record of the former and present condition of silk culture in America, and something of what has been done since the days of President Stiles, who, with Dr. Aspinwall and Joseph Clarke, may be considered the pioneers of silk culture in the northern and eastern States, and now revised and corrected for the year 1847.

Little did I think, while a member of Yale College, under the presidency of the Rev. Ezra Stiles, D. D., that when approaching him, by the distant manners of that day, with hat under the arm, and doing obeisance to his person, enveloped in his brown American silk tagos, that I should ever follow him so closely in his favorite amusement of silk culture.

It is sincerely hoped that some friend should write out and deposit records of the state of silk culture with the President of Yale College, for the time being, at least every twenty or twenty-five years, and especially at the end of the present century, to be preserved in the archives of the College, where is the Journal of President Stiles, the *nucleus* of American silk culture; that reports of the state of silk culture in America may be kept in *perpetuam*. The sequel of silk culture in the United States may be very important to the country, and to carry out the object of the subscriber in all coming time.

DANIEL STEBBINS.

Northampton, September, 1847.

REMARKS.

What is here said of "heading down" mulberry trees, needs notice. The advantages apply equally to other varieties also. For this purpose the trees are planted in rows, about five feet apart, and about two feet apart in the rows, which should always run north and south to expose equally to the sun. The cultivation should be principally by means of a hoe, or if a plow is used at all, it should be a very light one, (a narrow cultivator is good) and in the middle between the rows. Preparatory to a plantation the ground should be clean, and mellow by deep and repeated plowing, and well supplied with vegetable manure. The plants then take deep root and are easily cultivated. The late foliage generally will keep the soil in good condition, and is probably the best fertilizer that can be employed for this purpose.

We have preferred to remove the sprouts late in the fall, after the foliage has fallen and preserve either for planting in layers the following season, or composing for manure.

It is now probable that, by a recent discovery for separating the fibre of hemp and flax, the firmer bark of the mulberry may be obtained, which will render the after growth of great value.

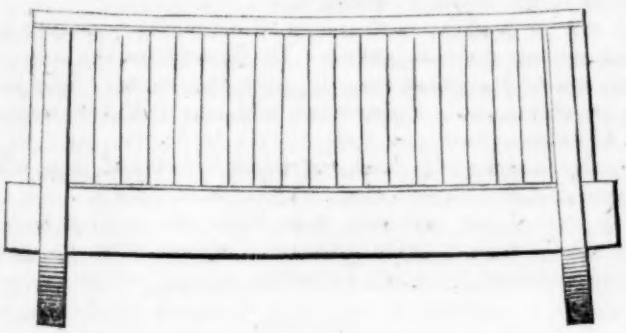
The leaves should be carefully drawn up on the roots of the trees before winter sets in. The sprouts start very early in the spring, furnishing tender leaves for young worms, and by the time of the fourth moulting, are sufficiently matured for cutting down for branch feeding which is the practice now by the most successful feeders. A few inches should always be removed from the tops, as the leaves there are too watery for advanced worms.

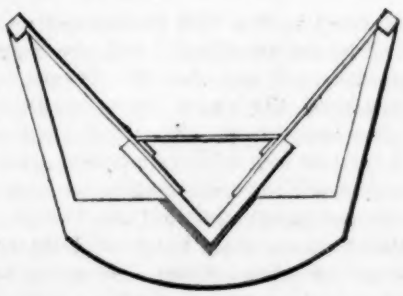
As regards the use of mulberry leaves for paper, we doubt whether for fine paper it can be bleached sufficiently white.

It makes a very strong paper for wrapping and is valuable as a place of deposite for silk worm's eggs.

GILL'S PATENT VENTILATING CRADLE.

SIDE VIEW.





END VIEW.

"The size of the cradle must depend upon the form and extent of the building. To suit a shed or building fifteen feet wide, the cradle should be twelve feet along, and have three rockers four feet long, made of plank fifteen to eighteen inches wide, and about one and a half thick. A trough, made of two boards, joined at the bottom, and spreading one foot at the upper edges, with one end open, is to be fitted into notches in the center of each rocker; this forms the bottom of the cradle. From the end of each rocker, a post two and a half feet long extends upwards, inclined a little outwardly. A narrow

strip of board runs along the ends of these posts, to which, and to the upper edge of the trough sides, lath are fastened half an inch apart, on which the branches, cut up in pieces about one foot long, are laid.

"Feeding in the cradles commences when the worms are about half grown, or immediately after their last moulting; where they remain until they spin.

"Care should be taken not to give at once more leaves than the worms will eat up while fresh, as, otherwise, a surplus is left to dry up, litter the trough, and obstruct ventillation.

"The cradle should be gently rocked at each feeding, thereby removing all impure air from about the worms and branches, and shaking down the dry leaves and excrement into the trough, which is washed out by occasionally pouring in water at the open end. The motion of rocking is very agreeable to the worms, being similar to that of the branches, when feeding in a state of nature.

"Another advantage is, that no worms can fall through the trough to the ground; those that happen to fall in the brush, crawl to the sides and ascend to the top at pleasure.

"The worms readily spin among the branches, making but little floss, and seldom double cocoons. By fenders on the rockers, mice, rats, &c., can be prevented from injuring the worms. The sheds and cradles are cheap, easily constructed, and meet all the wants of the worms, which are, protection from storms, birds, &c., pure air, cleanliness, regular feeding with fresh nutritious leaves, and to be undisturbed by handling, and to spin their cocoons when ready.

"They curtail the expenses more than *one half*, and *double the quantity* of silk from a given quantity of worms, over any other mode heretofore practiced."—*Gill's Circular.*

REMARKS.

The advantages claimed by Mr. Gill for his cradle, at first strike the reader as too great to be fully realized; but the inventor assures us, as do others who have them in use, that the picture is not overdrawn. Our own experience, too, in the use of them, confirms the statement, as far as the principle is concerned. We think, however, that a cradle with higher rockers, say two feet, without a trough, and the bottom one half wider, would secure all the *advantages*, and avoid some objections. It is rather inconvenient cleaning the trough, and even when this is done, it remains damp, with litter sticking to it, which soon moulds, and causes an offensive effluvia. Besides, with the greatest care, the bottom sometimes becomes clogged with litter and excremental matter.

These objections occurred to us on first seeing the cradle, and though our experience in the use of them has been limited, it has not served to lessen them much.

We must attribute this, in part, to want of care, as Mr. Gill assures us that, when properly managed, no such objections exist.

Individuals are authorized to use them throughout the term of the patent, as they please, for $10; application to be made as per advertisement in this Review.

The next paper we shall publish, is from the pen of the Hon. Joel

R. Poinsett, whose familiarity with silk production in Europe, and enlightened and practical views of the industry and economy of our own country, entitle it to candid consideration.

THE HOMESTEAD, GREENVILLE, S. C.,
Sept. 17th, 1847.

Dear Sir.—I have received your letter of the 4th instant, asking me to give you my views and impressions whether favorable or not, in relation to the culture of silk in the southern portion of the United States, and at the same time asking of me such suggestions of a practical nature as my acquaintance with other silk growing countries, and what I have noticed here may enable me to offer.

If I did not think favorable of your efforts to recommend the culture to the people of the south, I should not have ventured to oppose my opinions to those of a person, who like yourself, has been long occupied with this important subject. But thoroughly persuaded of its *practicability* and *importance*, I cannot refuse my feeble aid to urge on the introduction of a new staple likely to prove so advantageous to our country.

You are aware that this matter has frequently occupied the serious attention of Congress, and that there exist several luminous reports on the subject of raising the silk worms and reeling and throwing the silk. I have not access to these reports at this time, nor have I here a paper published by Mons. D. Homerque at Philadelphia, under the patronage of our distinguished fellow citizen the late Wm. Duponecan. They contain the most ample instructions in relation to rearing the silk worm and reeling the silk, and if these efforts have hitherto produced so little effet, it is to be in some measure imputed to the peculiar character of our people. We of the south are neither *patient* nor *persevering*, and can seldom be brought to undertake any enterprize which it requires more than a season to accomplish. As it requires 152 lbs of mulbery leaves to make one pound of reeled silk, the trees must be cultivated on an extensive scale before any considerable establishment can be formed, so that hitherto silk worms have been reared, and silk spun more as an amusement than an occupation; and the morus multicaulus has been cultivated with a view rather to its *sale* than with any intention of applying its leaves to their legitimate purpose. Both the morus Alba and the morus multicaulus succeed perfectly in these latitudes, and with ordinary pains the silk worm might be reared and the best silk obtained throughout a very extensive portion of our country, whereever the trial has been made on a small scale by careful hands. *have never known it fail;* whereas, most of the large establishments intended to produce silk for exportation have failed both in England and in our southern country.

The reasons for this in both countries are probably the same; an insufficient number of trees and want of attention to the temperature of the rooms where the worms are fed. Where the practice of rearing the worms is followed rather as an amusing occupation, than for purposes of gain, the rooms may easily be kept of a proper temperature, say 64° Fah. for hatching, and 70° to 75° while feeding, and at

the time of spinning, raising the head a little every day. It is stated in the fifth volume of the transactions of the society for the encouragement of arts, that a person had successfully reared thirty thousand silk worms, when in the beginning of July, just as they were about to spin, there came a chilly northeast wind, and many assumed the chrysalis state without making any attempt to form a protecting cover.

I have myself seen many worms destroyed by being kept in buildings constructed of thin boards and exposed to great alternations of heat and cold.

In an account which I have seen of the silk culture in Lombardy, where nearly the entire population are engaged in it, for a stated period every year, and where the husbandmen purchase the eggs and the mulberry leaves from the large proprietor, it is said that, "in every house room is made for laying out the worms as soon as any symptoms of life appear, and that even in the poorest cottages with but a single apartment, it is so contrived that some space is allotted for them, and the inhabitants shift as well as they can during twenty or thirty days. Tables of reed are formed about two feet and a half in breadth and ten to eighteen feet in length. These are suspended from the roof, the upper shelf two feet below it, and others at a foot distance, the lowest of them two feet from the floor. The windows are made of paper to prevent currents of cold air and too great heat: the shutters are of straw, and the door consists of a piece of old linen cloth. Within; the place is kept in darkness, except when the worms are to be fed, or the place cleaned out; when lamps are used. In many of these places thermometers made for the express purpose, are kept to ascertain the temperature. They are made of spirits of wine and show no other change of heat than that between the 18th and 20th degrees of Beama equivalent to 68° and 76° of Fahrenheit, to which limits it is deemed necessary to confine their range of temperature." With these small producers who furnish the greater quantity of silk, the labor for the most part, ceases with the formation of the cocoon; for they generally sell the cocoons to other persons, who make the winding and throwing the silk a *distinct trade*. There are, however, some few establishments in which the silk worms are reared, and in which the thread is wound off and all the operations completed to fix the silk for market.

Notwithstanding a great portion of the silk prepared in that part of Italy is consumed within the country, the *exports* of this article were estimated ten years ago, at upwards of *fifteen millions of dollars*, and it appears from late accounts that this culture has been steadily increasing ever since that period.

I have been thus particular in describing the silk culture of Lombardy, because it appears to me best adapted to this country. In the upper districts of Virginia, the Carolinas and Georgia, there are many small farmers who might nurse the silk worm if there existed in their neighborhood *establishments for reeling* and preparing the silk for market, with *extensive mulberry groves* and a regular *supply of seed*, affording a ready market for the produce of their labor and an abundant supply of the raw material. These establishments for

reeling and preparing the silk for the manufacturer, are the more necessary from the *skill and judgment* required to select the different kinds of silk produced by one batch of worms. We observed at Lyons that the cocoons were divided into nine distinct classes, and great care taken to reel off each class apart.

After all, it is to be feared, that the culture of silk will be introduced very slowly in our country. Like that of the vine, the olive and the cork oak, all well adapted to portions of our soil and climate, the mulberry requires time to arrive at maturity and until our population becomes more dense and our habits more settled to a permanent residence in our *birth places*, we shall continue to give a preference to the culture of such fruits of the earth as are produced by our annual labor.

Your ob't servant,
J. R. P.

Two subjects of vital concern are introduced in this communication. The one having reference to the temperature where silk worms are feeding; and the other to *markets for cocoons* and *nurseries* for the supply of trees, seeds, &c. They are topics which have been repeatedly treated by us during the last five years. In regard to the former, we have given it as our opinion, that all buildings used for this purpose, should be so constructed as to place the control of the temperature entirely in the power of the superintendent. This is particularly important in all latitudes subject to sudden changes, and there are few portions of the United States where it is safe to overlook it, inasmuch as it can be done, and still admit of a construction affording the amplest ventillation.

North of the latitude of Washington, it becomes quite indispensible; south of it, it would at least be safe.

We think very favorably of the Chinese oven before described or something similar.

In saying that means for producing an artificial temperature are *indispensible;* we wish not to be understood as intimating that silk cannot be made even in cold climates without any such arrangement for we have evidences of remarkable success in all the states of the North where no artificial heat has ever been introduced; and in our own feeding, large crops have been fed, with no protection from cold or light, save a simple tent with a roof of boards and sides of canvass. But in all these cases, there have been interruptions and delays occasioned by cold nights and mornings and chilly days during storms of rain; when facilities for retaining a temperature of 75° to 80° would have been very gratifying to our dormant families, besides materially lessening the term of labor and securing in the end, (probably) a fuller and better harvest.*

* It has been proposed to employ electricity as a substitute for heat and some interesting experiments have been made by a distinguished electrician of Brooklyn, to whom application having been made for the facts in the case, the following answer was received.

BROOKLYN, Sept. 30th, 1847.

DEAR SIR:—Your letter, dated yesterday, has been received, and in reply I

We have recommended, as well adapted to the objects desired, a building of the following description.

Single story buildings, or sheds are preferable to any others.

A convenient size for a single *home*, would be about 100 feet long by 25 feet wide. If the plantation be large, several sheds had better be put up in different parts, than to risk the health of a whole family of worms, by single buildings of larger dimensions.

A cheap mode of construction would be to place square posts at six or eight feet apart for the sides, and central posts for supporting the roof ten to twelve feet apart. The roof may be made of boards or shingles as preferred. The sides and ends should be made in the form of venitian blinds, of boards six to eight inches wide, and three-fourths of an inch thick. The pivots can be made to play in holes in the posts, and the whole made so as to entirely shut out both light and air, or to admit them in any quantity desired. Besides this enclosure it would be desirable in the more northern sections of the country to have straw mats, corresponding to the space between the posts, filled on rollers like window shades, that may be lowered at any time, and would make a comfortable house in cold weather. It will readily be seen that a building, such as we have described, can scarcely be open to an objection of any kind. With the blinds slightly opened, and the ventilators in the roof raised a few inches, we have a draft of fresh air from all directions, without the annoyances of too much light or unequal currents or gusts of wind. When too, the wind is strongly blowing from any quarter, the blinds on the exposed side may be closed.

It would be well to allow the eaves of the roof to project two or

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would remark, that, the silk worms on which my experiments were made, were born in the last of May. During the early part of June, cold weather prevented the growth of the mulberry foliage and they had to feed for four days on garden lettuce. This important change caused the death of many and impaired the health of the living. On the 17th of June a full supply of good leaves were obtained.

The worms were then placed on clean hurdles and insulated by glass supports, and covered with sheets of strong twilled silk to intercept a too free circulation of air through the hurdles. They were kept in a dry room properly aired, without artificial heat, trusting to the spontaneous influence of the season.

About 1500 healthy worms were distributed on three hurdles. One hurdle, separated from the rest, and insultated, was supplied with fresh leaves. A large electrical jar being connected with the leaves at one end by means of a metalic rod and gradually charged from a cylindrical electrical machine, were roused from their torpid state and commenced eating voraciously. Their activity continued about an hour, when they appeared to have eaten enough. The electrical insulation was repeated at each feeding, when not prevented by a very damp state of the atmosphere, until June 28th, when many of the worms manifested a disposition to mount and spin, when they were furnished with cabins of brushwood which were soon well filled by my industrious family. They finished their cocoons fully a week sooner than those fed on the other hurdles, with a corresponding difference in the quality of their cocoons.

An electrical machine, having a 10 or 12 inch cylinder, and a leyden jar of about three gallons capacity, and about 4 square feet coated surface and other accompanying apparatus, in the hands of a judicious manipulator, would be sufficient to attend upon 50,000 worms, and keep them in a healthy action. I was much pleased with the experiment and believe it may be of consequence to silk growers to give it their attention.

Respectfully, Yours,
JESSE EVERETT.

three feet to prevent water falling too near the house, and also to shield from the rays of the sun in very warm weather. Nurseries for young worms, similar to those used in China, should always be furnished in one end of the building. The east end is preferable.

Of the other subject alluded to viz. *establishments for purchasing and reeling the cocoons* and *nurseries for furnishing trees, seeds, &c.*—we have much to say, more by far, than our space will here allow: for upon *these* the success of the *silk industry* in any country, is *solely* and *entirely dependent.* And to the fact that, the attention of this country has been directed to any thing and every thing else, *rather* than these—is alone attributable the *other fact*, that, we are not at this day producing silk in amounts equal to other countries. Is not this the case? Where has the existence of a public filature, possessing any confidence, failed to secure cocoons in considerable quantities in the shortest time allowable?

Such a failure is not on record. It was so at Savannah, Philadelphia and Mansfield, and has been so in other places.

The great wonder has always been, where the cocoons came from! Otherwise, why have silk producing nations, always sought *first*, by royal authority, to establish markets in which their people might trust and filatures to which manufacturers might look for silk well and uniformly reeled? The reason, obviously, is the same that has induced the French nation, and this year more than ever before, to establish in every district of France, where cocoons may be produced, permanent markets and filatures supplied with well qualified reelers.

Most of our states have given bounties at one time and another, for the production of cocoons, but simple bounties, unless they be large enough to afford a fair compensation for the labor of producing them, will not create cocoons.

It is as unreasonable as it would be to offer bounties for raising cotton, without a single gin or mill for its manufacture.

We venture to assert here, as we have often before, that no state will raise any considerable quantities of cocoons, with or without bounties, until *State Filatures and Nurseries* are *established* accessible to farmers.

And we venture *another* assertion: that when any state or the states generally shall have adopted a system supplying these defects, our people will not be slow in performing the agricultural part of this work; nor our nation *long* inferior to others in the prosecution of any part of the silk business.

To show in what light others view this subject, we include here some translations made for our use, by the Hon. Henry Meigs, Secretary of the New York Farmers' Club, and Recording Secretary of the American Institute of New York.

American Institute, September 10, 1847.

Extracts from the *Annales de la Société Sericicole*, founded in 1837, for the propagation and amelioration of the Silk Industry of France.

Of the Reeling and art of taking off Silk from Cocoons.

This brief treatise is just received from France, by the hands of *Alexander Vattemare*, for which the Institute, on behalf of the United States, are thankful.

TRANSLATION.

If the mulberry could be easily cultivated in the center and north of France—if the *education* of the silk worm is sure of success, why have the efforts to establish the silk industry in these districts always failed? It is because the growers of cocoons have been unable to surmount *the difficulties in the reeling of silk.* It is because the silk they have made, being almost always *unequal* and of bad quality, could not find a market; so that too much presumption, and attempts ill managed, have ended in discouragement. Upon the reeling, then, must be concentrated *all perseverance*, all the energy of the men who now-a-days determine to naturalize silk industry in the north; and it is by studying the best methods, by forming *good reelers, above all other things*, without which they never can have good silk. Under these circumstances, the want of an elementary work, capable of teaching young reelers, is imperiously felt. An old reeler of the south of France, M. Ferrier, who, for more than thirty years, has been occupied nearly sixty times every year, in the department of the Herault, and who has constantly attended to the *education* of silk worms and to reeling, in the north where he lives, has made this Manual. He attaches himself, above all things, to the positive and useful practical methods. He begins by pointing out the manner in which we ought to judge and manage the cocoons before reeling, the *suffocation* of the worms, their preservation, their transportion, their selection; nothing important is omitted, and he enters into full details. After some general considerations, he describes the different operations of reeling—the mode of beating the cocoons and purging them—the formation of the *butt ends*—the mode of keeping the *butt ends*—the encroisure, (crossings.). Drawings are given of the various operations—a new plan, capable of supplying the wants of actual machines. He points out the quantity of silk which a reeler can furnish daily. He recommends order, neatness, and regularity in the reeling. He recommends *reeling establishments, central* to the *growers of cocoons.* We believe his work to be one specially conscientious.

Manual of Ferrier.

The reeling of cocoons is one of those things which theory cannot teach alone; it requires practice. However, it is possible to give new reelers some salutary rules; and I am about to try to give them. Scientific researches are not in my plan—they are out of my reach; and we know that experiments made in a cabinet may occasion deceptions, when the same results are expected in a general and positive operation. Far be it from my thought to contest the services which science may render to industry; nevertheless, it is true, that the greater number of operators who have made discoveries, were practical men.

Systems and theories may lead to error, but a judicious practice, which observes and reflects, must lead more surely to success. In a word, science should aid practice, but practice alone can decide in a sovereign manner, what is most advantageous to the manufacturer, and what will procure him the greatest benefits.

I am going to give the whole experience of my life. I never formed a system, nor do I present any discovery. I have no other object but to point out the *elements of reeling*. I shall speak of what I have done myself and have seen done. It is *in vain to raise cocoons or plant mulberries* until the art of taking the silk off the cocoons is extensively known. The silk growing establishments in many of our provinces especially in Touraine, which have been abandoned, *would have enriched those Provinces if they had possessed regular and well conducting reeling establishments !*

Such, I repeat, are the principal motives which have led me to this essay. I have tried to be as clear as possible, so that I might be understood by the most inexperienced, and I shall esteem myself happy if I have succeeded. Before I treat of reeling, I shall first speak of the cocoons. What I say is founded on the experience of myself and the traditional experience of my family.

Of Cocoons.

The first attention of the reeler must be to the cocoons, because some are bad and some good, some superior and some indifferent. It is impossible to point out the way of *judging of their value exactly before the reeling, and the most experienced are sometimes deceived.* However, I may be allowed to give some precepts which may guide the silk grower as to the qualities of the products obtained—and the reeler, as to the cocoons he should purchase. One of the first guarenties of good cocoons is the success of their education. When the worms have been well managed—when they have been sheltered from the injurious variation of temperature—when they have received frequent feed, in *equal periods, not interrupted by fasts,* when they have consumed none but leaves *free from humidity and fermentation,* and lastly, when their moulting has been simultaneous and rapid, one may count on having excellent cocoons. The essential condition of a good cocoon; consists in its being *good stuff* and furnished with silk, which are manifested by its equal and regular form, *by the firmness and resistance to a light pressure on all its parts, but principally at its two ends,* where the resistance to pressure is always greatest. A fine grain, equal and close, are good signs.

When, after having thrust the hand into a heap of cocoons, one takes up a handful, and when we find in all of them an equal resistance to pressure, when in drawing out the handful we find a long string connected with the *Blaze* or Bouvre. If they weigh heavy in the hand, and when in letting them fall on the floor, they give a sound like that of falling *nuts* we may felicitate ourselves, *for such are good cocoons !* When *feeble at their ends* or even *at one end* they present a sad condition, because being first exhausted of silk at that point, they are penetrated by the water and can no longer be reeled,

so that the balance of the stuff on them is lost. These are the *pointed* or *glassy* which produce the waste, vulgarly called in the south of France *Bassin-at*, that is *sink in the basin*.

A great inequality in the form and in the degree of strength of a cocoon, indicates bad education of the worms, which have suffered. The silk from such is very indifferent.

Where we find them light, stale, giving no sound when shaken and in which the chrysalis is decomposed, giving a fetid smell, an indifferent silk is expected, as to quantity and lustre.

If the cocoons taken up lightly in the hand, bend under the pressure of the finger—if they remain *crumpled* together or produce a sound like dry parchment, if they give no sound except a dull one in falling on the floor, *they are weak in silk!*

When the sound given by the chrysalis is sharp and unequal, and when the cocoon is very light, we must examine whether this does not proceed from the chrysalis having been *muscardinée* (*attacked by a sort of moth;*) for that circumstance would be fatal to the producer, who should sell it, because the chrysalis would have lost all its weight almost, and this too would be very injurious to the reeler, for it often happens that the worm attacked by the muscardine, spreads through the inside of the cocoon a whitish matter which sticks together the whole tissue; in such case all reeling is impossible. *A loose grain, unequal and shining* in cocoons is always suspicious, such are the *satinés* (like satin.) *The size of a cocoon* is not an infallible mark of good quality. Generally, we prefer an *uniform and medium size.* As in all other things, there are exceptions to this rule. Weight is a favorable indication—the fewer cocoons to the pound, the greater the quantity of silk, but before we weigh them we must be sure that the chrysalis has attained its proper state. When the worm has finished its cocoon, he remains still a worm and keeps his weight which only diminishes in proportion to the accomplishment of his metamorphosis, and we must take care how we destroy them before they attain the state of chrysalis, for they will then communicate to the cocoon a kind of softness and humidity. This is so well understood at the south of France, that when the existence of the worm is demonstrated by opening a certain number of the cocoons they constitute a case redhibitoire.

We always require before we receive such that they shall have passed at least six days on the Bruyère (heath) after backward worms have been taken from the hurdles.

Cocoons are, as every one knows, yellow or white, and it is good that the respective colors should be pure and uniform. Many reelers pretend that the white ones are more delicate, requiring more caution in reeling—and this pretence is not without foundation. But a fine color raises the price of silk and is a benefit. A very serious inconvenience sometimes presents itself with both colors, and that is the difficulty of reeling them and the breaking or frequent cessation of the thread. And on a first examination of cocoons, nothing can indicate this ruinous condition, because it is never manifest until the cocoon is in the basin, and at the moment of reeling. In such a case, the only way to lessen the injury, is to use other cocoons of firmer silk, because a more

considerable number of cocoons forming the thread, the reeler has more facility in keeping it even and regular.

Double cocoons, which contain more than one chrysalis produce a great loss. Being formed of a tissue crossed in opposite directions they are confused and cannot be regularly reeled. We get from such, a silk called *Douppious* the price of which is hardly the third of that of good silk.

Sudden cold or heat injures the cocoons while forming, and a variable temperature also. Want of proper ventilation is another evil—want of good and regular food makes weak and irregular cocoons. Fresh cocoons are those which contain living chrysales. We can reel them, but the time for doing it is very short, for we know that after twenty or twenty-four days, according to the warmth of the air, the chrysalis become butterflies, soften the cocoon at one end, and make a hole through the tissue and escape. We therefore must hurry the reeling, for when the cocoons are once pierced, we cannot reel them in the basin.

It is to be regretted that the circumstances under which this translation was made did not admit of its being more complete.

On the same subject, Judge Meigs has furnished us the following, also translated by him, from the O Auxiliador Da Industria Nacional of Rio Janeiro, January, 1847.

"The production of cocoons is absolutely *worth nothing* without the organization of filatures. The raising and collection of them become sources of depression and disgust, where there is no means of sale or filature. To send them to Europe to be reeled is totally impracticable.

The *production* of cocoons and their *reeling must* be organized at the *same time;* and we affirm without the fear of being mistaken that the filature is the greatest difficulty for us to conquer. The best method to obviate this evil will be to establish filatures central to the growers of cocoons."

We shall next call attention to the letter of Mr. John S. Peirce, of Burlingten, Vermont. The name of this gentleman has often been before the public in connection with his exhibitions of silk. There has no difficulty arisen which his perseverence has not overcome. What has been considered most remarkable is, that, all this has been accomplished so far at the north; and yet, he makes no complaints in regard to climate—but on the contrary, believes silk culture comparable in profit and ease of execution with any other pursuit of the agriculturist. Letters containing the details of experiments made in the coldest parts of Maine, and in terms of equal confidence, have often been sent us; and there are now in that state, quite a number of farmers who testify that the *silk departments* of their farms, give better returns for the labor and outlay devoted to them, than any other.

BURLINGTON, Sept. 8th, 1847.

A. C. VAN EPPS, ESQ.

DEAR SIR.—The press of other engagements has prevented an earlier reply to your favor of the 11th ult., and I cannot now attempt to go into any thing like a detailed account of my experience in the silk

business. I can only give you a few hints, which, if given to the world through you, may be of some service to my countrymen. I have been engaged in silk culture for five years and with uniformly good success. The only exceptions have been when, in one or two instances I have come short of foliage. And, although, when I commenced I had never seen a silk worm, and not a person in the place had ever seen a silk reel or a skein of reeled silk, I have succeeded beyond my most sanguine expectations, in all I have undertaken. In talking the matter over to my wife, we concluded that, as we were Yankees, nothing need be feared, we could in some way find out all about it; and so we went at it, guided rather by common sense, than any knowledge we could obtain from books.

The first ounce of eggs fed by us produced more silk than is often obtained by the most experienced feeders—(about 100 lbs. cocoons.) My wife then set about the reeling of them, and before three pounds were reeled, had conquered the principal difficulties, and now finds it easy to reel 1¼ lbs. per day, 10 fibres such as you saw at the Fair.

I have been trying some experiments this season with the various kinds of leaves. It has often been said that it would not do, in feeding worms, to change from one kind of mulberry to another, often.

To ascertain the effects of such changes, I have purposely changed the food nearly every day from their hatching, and have never had worms do better. I have used the White, Broosa, Asiatic, Canton and Multicaulus, and believe it of no consequence what kind they are fed on, so you give them enough of any or all kinds.

With regard to the profit of raising silk, I have seen nothing yet to make me doubt that it may be made better business than ordinary farming; and if we can raise it in the north of Vermont, profitably, I am sure it may be good business in the middle and southern states.

One word about raising trees. Having tried almost all the varieties that grow in our climate, I am fully satisfied that, the white and Broosa, rightly cultivated, are better for us, than any other.

They should be raised from the seed, and set in hedge rows. I have fed this season from a plantation three years old; and it would have done you good to see the quantity of leaves produced. I have cut them mostly down to the ground both last year and this. Where they were cut last year they threw up this year a great number of shoots, five and six feet high, which have been cut again this year. In this way I think we can obtain more foliage from an acre than could be obtained from large trees, and it is not a fourth part the labor to gather it.

I remain your obedient serv't,
JOHN S. PEIRCE.

REMARKS.

Mr. and Mrs. Peirce have been exhibitors of cocoons, reeled and woven silks in the Fairs of the American Institute every year since they commenced the business, and have always received the highest premiums, for which they have competed.

At the last Fair Mrs. Peirce exhibited a piece of over 60 yards,

white silk pocket handkerchiefs, twilled, which, for the beauty and perfection of their finish, were acknowledged by the best judges to exceed any article of the kind ever offered in this market.

This piece of goods received a premium of $50, the Van Schaich medal, and a *gold medal* from the Institute. She has before received several gold medals for smaller quantities of similar goods, as well as for cocoons and reeled silk. A considerable amount from the Van Schaich fund also, has before been awarded to her. It is proper here to remark that the Hon. Myndert Van Schaich, of this city, who has manifested great interest in the introduction of silk culture and manufacture in the United States, came forward about three years since and very generously placed in the hands of the American Institute the sum of one thousand dollars, to be appropriated in hundred dollar premiums upon raw and manufactured silks.

The influence of this encouragement has been salutary and gratifying in the extreme.

The following from another section of our country, will be read with interest, as it comes from the pen of a gentleman of intelligence, and one who is familiar with the subject and country of which he speaks.

LOUISVILLE, Oct. 10th, 1847.

A. C. VAN EPPS, ESQ.

DEAR SIR.—Your letter, requesting some information on the present state of the culture and manufacture of silk in this section of the south and southwest, and my views thereon, is received. I reply with pleasure, theugh circumstances necessarily compel me to be brief.

In Tennessee and Kentucky, and particularly in the mountain regions, the business is steadily and successfully progressing; though slow. One individual furnishes annually to the manufactory of Messrs. Jackson & Gray of this city, (where a ready market for cocoons and raw silk, at fair prices may be found,) several hundred pounds of reeled silk. His crop for this season will exceed that of any former year. Others in this immediate vicinity, have also produced increased quantities of silk. The worms of the several crops of this season have been entirely free from disease.

I am informed that great efforts are being made to establish this business in some of the cotton growing regions of the south.

In view of the great acquisition of cotton growing territory to our Union, it is evident that the price of this staple must forever be reduced to barely a remunerating standard. It it then the wisest policy of the south to diversify as much as possible her products, and I know of no branch that can be introduced with a fairer prospect of success than the culture of silk.

It is admitted on all hands, by those who have investigated the subject, that silk must at some future period become one of the great staples of our country.

When the emancipation of slavery in Virginia, Kentucky and Tennessee shall take place, and the consequent influx of a different class of population; these states will become the great central region for the production of this crop.

One of the essential requisites to the successful prosecution of this

business *in the south*, is an intelligent, persevering, and ever watchful superintendant. If this department can be properly supplied, I can see no reason why the growth of cotton and silk cannot be conducted on the same plantation to the greatest advantage. The worm crop will come on in the early part of the season, when the females, the young and the aged, who are usually employed in the picking season, are comparatively idle; or at least can be easily spared from other pursuits, will serve to gather leaves for large crops of worms; and the product of their labor more than doubly augmented.

The labor generally, from the introduction of this branch of industry upon the cotton farm will not be materially increased. The land required is comparatively little, and the cultivation of the trees, after once established, is much less than would be required for the same amount of land in corn.

The uniformity of the climate of most portions of the south is such, that shed or open feeding would best suit the habits of the worms, insure to them a greater degree of health, and relieve the superintendant from much of the care required in close apartments with artificial heat.

Among the numerous emigrants to this country, no doubt, there are many from the silk growing countries of Europe, whose services are required, and might be advantageously employed in the south and west. Though from the peculiar adaptation of our climate to the nature and habits of the worm, some modification in their treament will be found necessary, which any intelligent attendant, with the aid of such works on the subject as can be procured, will readily learn to apply.

We use the morus multicaulus in the first ages of the worms. After the last moulting—the age in which the material composing the silk is elaborated, we employ the white Italian and Canton varieties; as they abound more in the elements of silk. The latter is superior to the Italian only in the increased size of its leaves. The morus multicaulus possessing this advantage in a still greater degree, while it is better suited to the condition of the worm in its earliest ages.

If my humble efforts will in any way aid you, or advance this silk enterprise, please at any time command them.

Very respectfully your obedient serv't,

H. P. BYRAM.

Mr. John M. Summy, of Mauheim, Pa., in a late letter says:

I am not in the habit of writing, and must therefore say little. This county has been producing silk for some time, and we find no great difficulty in making cocoons. In this neighborhood several farmers are engaged in the business. The mulberry principally used is the multicaulus which all consider the best. I have thirteen acres of trees, and shall this season make over two hundred pounds of reeled silk. My mode of feeding is not peculiar. A few words will explain it.

I give my worms plenty to eat, ample room and free access to fresh, pure air.

I feed many in shanties, and *prefer out door feeding*. For spinning the cocoons, I use bundles of long straw.

We do not get as much for our silk as formerly, but we can feed for much less than half what it used to cost us. Instead of picking our leaves as formerly, we now feed with branches, and even whole trees, which reduces this part of the labor, before very cumbersome, to comparative pleasure.

No one need undertake this business unless he cultivate his trees otherwise the quantity and quality must be inferior.

It has been demonstrated again this season by one of my neighbors, that from 25 to 30 bushels cocoons can be produced from an acre of trees.

Another gentleman Mr. A. H. Rice, of the same place shortly after writes:

I have been engaged in the silk business six or seven years, and am much surprised that, any man who is willing to labor for a fair remuneration should become discouraged, or hesitate about engaging in silk culture. I have always been successful in feeding when I have had an abundance of foliage, and I consider my silk crop as certain as that of corn. My crop this year amounts to more than seventy pounds of reeled silk. I convert all of my silk into sewing, and have to purchase more as I work up from six to ten pounds per week.

REMARKS.

These are the results of experiments in, what would be supposed the most unfavorable region of Pennsylvania. Their winters are long and severe, and their feeding season short, subject to cold nights and mornings and heavy dews. Yet these men, and others in the same county, whom we know, have been steadily and profitably pursuing this employment for years, and appear as much at home in its prosecution, as others do, in the raising of wheat and corn; and certainly it makes *quicker* and *better* returns. Take for instance Mr. Summy with his thirteen acres, producing 200 pounds of reeled silk, worth at $4,50 per lb, (the price he received) $900 00. Deducting $300 for the expenses of raising, reeling, cultivation of orchards, and interest on capital invested, which is a very liberal allowance, we have a surplus of $600, or about $50 per acre, profit.

We are much mistaken, if farmers generally, in our country are not well satisfied with profits of one quarter this amount.

I do not hesitate in saying that Mr. Summy with his thirteen acres of multicaulus, and a few rough shanties, will make more money than the best farmer in Lancaster county, will get from fifty acres from ordinary crops.

And when we consider the difference in the capital invested, and the cost of production, the comparison stands as almost ten to one in favor of silk.

We have given the facts in the case, and the comparison is a fair one.

Now what is the secret of this success among these German farmers of "Mr. Stewart's state?" Why should they thus outstrip other and more favorable districts of country, and fill their pockets with pelf, while their next door neighbors grow poor? Why! first of all a little

filature is opened, and it is understood that the man who produces cocoons, can take his whole crop at once, even a large crop, and, by driving over to Mr. Eberly's or Mr. Summy's, exchange them for money or its equivalent, with no further delay or trouble; while others, after getting their crops into a marketable shape, have to cart them load by load 10, 20 or 50 miles through the mud, to market.

Another consideration, the importance of which has been almost totally overlooked, deserves our attention here. It is the *acclimation* of the silk worm and mulberry tree to that particular locality. It is a subject we have carefully studied, and find it universally true that, where any variety of worm or tree has been continued for a succession of years in the same latitude, there they become most perfect and thrive best. If this be so, it would be well for every grower to obtain eggs of the best species of silk worm and seeds or trees of the best mulberry, and devote themselves to their *acclimation*.

We will next give the testimony of a distinguished silk grower of Georgia, whose attention has long been enlisted in favor of silk; and who nearly ten years ago could boast of having an entire suit of silk, the handiwork of his own family.

MACON, BIBB COUNTY, Sept. 2d, 1847

A. C. VAN EPPS, ESQ.

DEAR SIR:—Your letter of the 7th August, reached me in due time but the pressure of other engagements has prevented an earlier answer. The reason I have not corresponded with you as much as usual of late, on the subject of silk culture, has not been owing to a decrease of interest, but because I had said so much, and written so many letters on the subject, and so little apparent good had been effected.

I had therefore made up my mind to do what I could with silk in my own family, and say nothiug more about it; and had I not been called upon by yourself or some one else, I should have remained silent; and now I write more to gratify you than with the expectation that much good will be the result.

I might say that Georgia is one of the finest countries in the world to produce silk, and speak of the great benefits to be derived from its culture, but this every body here knows as well as I do; no one disputes it. On the contrary it is believed to be *so easy* a thing that, were our planters generally to engage in it, the market would be *glutted*. And this is actually urged as an objection,—I have heard it again and again. That such reasoning is unfounded, need not be said —but if such a thing could be possible, this is the country, and we are the people to accomplish it; could we be induced to give it our active attention. We have amongst us, a vast number of idle persons, useless to themselves and every one else, who might be most profitably employed in making silk. I have hoped to see the day when the multitudes of idle youth and men, who now annoy the country and vitiate society, would be engaged in making silk, but I begin to doubt its realization.

We are now using silk for both summer and winter clothing and find it better and cheaper than any thing else.

Some very fine vestings have been shown me lately made in the family of an adjoining planter, which sold readily at $4, a pattern.

When I reflect upon the evident advantages which might be derived from this pursuit, and see how men are spending their time and money in the pursuit of objects of trifling value, I can scarcely suppress my indignation.

Respectfully Yours,
A. C. ERNEST.

REMARKS.

We are happy to state that the example and influence of Judge Ernest have not been in vain. We might name several persons in Georgia to whom we have forwarded mulberry tree seeds, silk worms eggs and silk machinery during the past year, and it is safe to conclude, from indications we have received that, a speedy revival of the silk interest will take place at no distant day.

We can give place to but one other communication from the south. The writer, Hon. P. H. Green, has made himself practically acquainted with the culture of silk, having made several successful experiments in Maine and other parts of New England, and we understand, intends at some future day to establish himself in a favorable location at the south.

DONALDSONVILLE, LA., July 12th, 1847.

DEAR SIR :—I am just in receipt of your letter, having been absent for some time to Mississippi city, and New Orleans. I am glad to know that you have selected as a medium for your communications a journal in the city of New Orleans, and shall be disappointed if they are not the means of calling public attention to a subject of vital importance to the state.

In reply to your query, "What you deem important to say on the subject, as to the natural adaptation of our country, particularly the south, for the culture of silk," I have to observe that, since my residence at the south, but one practical fact has been settled in my mind which is, that foliage can be produced abundantly here, indeed a large proportion of land in the northern and western parts of this state, not sufficiently rich to produce sugar or cotton, is, I have no doubt admirably adapted to the growth of the mulberry tree, and I am not prepared to say that those sections are not as well adapted to the culture of silk generally, as any other region of the globe.

But one objection presents itself, which is the humidity of the atmosphere, and this unless I have been misinformed is quite different from what it is on river lands, being much less humid. It seems to me that long before labor in the United States is as cheap as in the old countries, silk will rank among our most important productions—what section will produce the largest proportion is to be determined hereafter. I am inclined to think that it will come from the middle and southern states. In my humble judgment a great error was committed in the early cultute of silk in this country, which has been continued down to the present time, that is, the idea that it requires little

or no skill to raise silk—that old men and children can do it, &c. This is true to a very limited extent, the labor not being so important as it is nice, requiring careful, mathematical as well as chemical calculations.

In order to cultivate silk successfully we must have a sufficient supply of good foliage, sufficient ventilated space, proper attendance and an appropriate temperature. With these silk can be produced any where, without them, no where.

With regard to temperature, I believe it has been ascertained by actual experiment, that from 70° to 80° is best for silk worms, and that the highest point matures them in a shorter time than a lower degree, and that they then make more and better silk. The silk worm is a native of a warm climate and must have a warm climate, *natural or artificial* to make it thrive well.

With great respect, your ob't servant,

P. H. GREEN.

A. C. VAN EPPS, ESQ.

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PORTLAND, Aug. 29th, 1847.

DEAR SIR:—Yours of the 16th came duly to hand, and right cordially did I receive the information of the prospective advance in the silk culture in the southern portion of the states. Not only at the "South," but also, a "still small voice" is giving encouragement at the North, if we take the general expression, and extended inquiry and observation, as a messenger.

The few, who have withstood the cold battling scorn and sarcasm which has been so rife for a few years past, will soon be looked up to as the permanent friends of their country. It is only the Roman firmness that can place the silk cause on a permanent foundation. The motto, "that what we see we know," I think will soon give Yankee enterprise a jog that nothing can stop until we see on every farm a plantation of mulberry, and a portion of the family directed to the employment of silk-growing. To comply with your request I must refer you in part to my letter to the American Institute for 1845, with this added, that my operations still encourage me and that every year I can improve in my manner of feeding and produce cocoons of increased value as to quality—also produce the worm at maturity without finding diseased worms, which was the case this year. I do not think I had 100 in my whole crop this year. Plenty of room, fresh air, strict cleanliness, and a good supply of firm fresh leaves as often as every hour is the secret.

What I should say as theory, is just what I should certainly put in practice.

What the introduction of cotton has, the silk cause must suffer, and after years of patient toil, we shall see the silk of *America*, not only save the millions which we expend and throw into the lap of monarchy saved to pay American operatives, and draw forth American skill and ingenuity, until like our cotton fabrics, we will surprise the "*old world*" by the exposition of our silk fabrics in Europe's great metropolis, after paying charges and duties (not free trade) cheaper than those

of their own manufacture. What! says one to me the other day! We make silk cloths in America? What total ignorance are our people in? Could the people of the states be generally informed through the press of the extent to which the silk culture and manufacture is carried on, I think there would be greater action both *national* and individual.

It is only by disseminating knowledge on any department of industry, and the American people will give thought to it; for it seems instinctively true, that the Yankees are ready for any thing they can see a dollar in. Could there be a statistical form given of the probable amount of raw silk produced annually, also of manufactured goods, in connection with the number of manufacturing establishments, and the amount of raw material used—what proportions American and what foreign, and the comparative value of American over foreign, in dollars and cents, and the expense of raising cocoons, their value in market, &c. &c., and those statistics published by our most widely circulated weekly journals, I think we might soon draw into the field a strong corps of enterprising men, who will push the cause along until it shall be no more the theme of ridicule.

With silk as with cotton, it has barriers to surmount; and those a public opinion; for information can be obtained from the experience and philosophical treatment of the worms by very many who have given the subject their study. Again I will say, let the cocoonery be open for a free circulation of heaven's blessing, pure air; next feed often with fresh and well matured leaves; often—once an hour; a strict and thorough cleaning both shelves and room; the shelves cleaned by changing; the worms spread so as not to be crowded on the shelves—plenty of room, and after the last moulting feed on branches cut. You will recollect last year I gave information of a rack swing I used for branch feeding; this year I used it as a stationary rack, by nailing boards on the standards for my shelves and laying loose sticks upon them three or four inches apart, then putting the branches upon them. Now then sir, any one who will follow these directions need not fear but that they can grow the silk worm successfully. As for the profit; I think it will equal any other agricultural operation.

No one need expect that they can become vastly rich in one or two years *merely because they are in the silk business*—but perseverence will give *good returns*.

E. S. BARTHOLOMEW.

A. C. Van Epps, Esq.

REMARKS.

The author of the above is located in one of the coldest parts of New York, where his trees are much exposed to the rigors of winter, and where he is very liable to interruptions by untimely frosts; yet he has been one of the most successful feeders in this state.

His cocoons have been forwarded to our filatures, and are very fine. Quite a number of farmers in the western part of this state have prosperous silk departments connected with their farms, from

which they are realising good profits. The undertaking was induced by the existence, for a while, of a filature at the state prison at Auburn.

This enterprise, unfortunately, was sacrificed to party changes, and many who had been led to plant out orchards of mulberry trees, soon abandoned them, and the business has generally ceased except where partial markets have been offered.

A few of those who were most largely engaged in the business, acquainted themselves with reeling and several hundred pounds of reeled silk are received here yearly.

The probable product of raw silk in this state, at the time the prison market was discontinued, must have been several thousand pounds. Much that is now made is worked up into sewing silk and fabrics of various kinds. We shall here terminate our correspondence. More than one hundred other letters are before us received within the past few months, from various parts of the United States and the West Indies. They express but *one opinion* on this subject, that of *universal confidence*.

We speak advisedly in saying that, *our people are ready for the work*, and will promptly second any well directed action of the National or state governments. The question then arises, in what way *can* our authorities render the most efficient aid?

The only course we would suggest for Congress, and it has been most thoroughly tested, would be to imitate the example of England. Protect by *liberal duties*, all classes of silk which we are capable of manufacturing, *so liberal* that the advantage shall be unquestionably on the part of our own people. The *raw material* should be admitted at a very nominal duty until our manufactories are firmly established and the *culture* of silk pretty generally adopted.

We have already intimated the course to be pursued by the states individually.

But more particularly. Every state should have its filature, of sufficient capacity to receive and dispose of all the cocoons offered for which cash should be paid.

This should be established in a central location, most accessible to all parts of the state; and connected with this should be a nursery, of at least fifty to one hundred acres of the best varieties of the mulberry trees, from which to supply, *freely*, all applicants residing within the state, who upon receiving the same, would become obligated to employ them in a manner prescribed by laws regulating the management of the filature and nursery.

This establishment would not require a large appropriation, and after five years would pay all its expenses, and yield a *surplus* as a *sinking fund*, for the reimbursement of the state.

The *foliage* from the nursery, *alone*, would be of immense value if properly employed. Even at the moderate calculation of one half of what has been shown to be a *reasonable product* from silk culture, we should have a revenue of no mean amount.

The filature, too, would not be without its *profit*, and it is believed that the *paupers* of the state might be made to perform the principal part of the labor of both departments.

With such a *pre-inducement, bounties* for the production of cocoons might be offered with advantage—otherwise, *all legislation*, in the opinion of the writer, is *utterly futile*.

With these suggestions we leave the subject with our fellow citizens, in the hope that its great importance may be duly considered, and such measures employed as shall ultimately lead to the establishment of the *silk industry* as a permanent and profitable pursuit of our people. The *curing, transportion* and *reeling* of cocoons, and the *preservation of worm eggs*, will be made the subjects of another article to appear in a future number of this review.

ART. III.—THE SCIENCE OF HISTORY.

Introduction to the History of Philosophy, by Victor Cousin, Professor of Philosophy, of the Faculty of Literature of Paris. Translated from the French, by Henry Gotfried Linberg. Boston: Hilliard, Gray, Little & Wilkins. 1832.

[CONTINUED.]

After the long though by no means irrelevant digression, in our last article, concerning Spinoza's pantheism, which led us somewhat out of the domain of philosophy into the sterile realm of theology, we will now return to M. Cousin and continue our analysis of his system of philosophy.

According to our author's theory, we have seen that humanity develops itself by means of its own instinctive wants; that these instinctive wants possess an inherent activity, capable of making an effort from their own centers: and that by their own innate vigor they move forward into acts, deeds, realities. These wants, with their realizations, as we have already shown, our author has enumerated categorically. From this view of the case, it will also have been perceived that humanity works alone and on her own funds, without any aid from Providence except in a general way. We now proceed to the examination of Cousin's analysis of human reason, and the reduction of its elements to the formula of which he makes so much use in this book.

The rigorous and scientific analysis of the elements of human reason has been several times attempted, although our author notices but two serious efforts of the kind. It first belonged to Aristotle to penetrate into the depths of human reason, to submit it to the same scalpel which has produced the history of animals, to determine and to describe all its elements, under the denomination, since so celebrated, of *categories*. Dr. Reid, in an elegant little treatise, affixed to the end of one of the volumes of Home's "History of Man," has dissected and given a clearer insight into this portion of Aristotle's obscure Logic than can be had from any other source, not excepting Aristotle himself. In this *jeu d'esprit* of the Scottish philosopher, written at the instance of his friend Lord Kames, Professor Reid explains the intention of the *categories* or predicements to be, the mustering every object of human apprehension under ten

heads: for the categories are given as a complete enumeration of every thing which can be expressed without *composition* and *structure*; that is, of every thing that can be either the subject or the predicate of a proposition. So that as every soldier belongs to some company, and every company to some regiment; in like manner every thing that can be the object of human thought, has its place in one or the other of the ten categories; and by dividing and subdividing properly the several categories, all the notions that enter into the human mind may be mustered in rank and file, like an army on the day of battle. Thus, the whole furniture of the human mind is presented to us at one view, and contracted, as it were, into a nut-shell.

A regular distribution of things under proper classes or heads, is, without doubt, a great help to both memory and judgment. As the philosopher's province includes all things human and divine that can be objects of inquiry, he is naturally led to attempt some general division, like that of the categories. There are two ends that may be proposed by such divisions. The first is, to methodize or digest in order what a man actually knows. The other is to exhaust the subject divided; so that nothing that belongs to it shall be omitted. Reid enumerates several attempts at this kind of reduction, since the decline of the Peripatetic philosophy, as substitutes in the place of the ten categories; none of which, however, he considers as more perfect. Locke, for instance, has reduced all things to three categories; to wit, *substances*, *modes* and *relations*. In this division, time, space, and number, three great objects of human thought, are omitted. The author of the treatise of Human Nature has reduced all things to two categories; to wit, *ideas* and *impressions*. We will not here mention Peter Ramus and many others who have tried to remedy the imperfection of philosophical divisions by introducing new modes of their own. These are futile efforts at substitutions for, or reductions of, the famous Aristotelian categories, scarce worthy the passing notice we have given them.

A similar enumeration to that of Aristotle was attempted by the distinguished German, Kant, and in nearly the same technical language. These two great analyzers are presumed to have exhausted the statistics of reason. Cousin closes the list after them, and proceeds to the reduction of these elements, manifold, diverse, and complicated as they may seem to the superficial observer, to three categories; to wit, the *infinite*, the *finite*, and the *relation* of the two. These then are the three presiding and ruling ideas or principals of human reason. These three ideas, that is, the idea of the infinite, the idea of the finite, and the idea of their relations, constitute the formula of reason or the formula of thought; and all the constituent elements of human reason are reducable to this simple and single formula. We have not the space to enlarge upon this topic but must content ourself with simply stating our author's proposition;—for those examples by which it is illustrated, and for the manner in which it is unfolded, the reader is referred to the work itself.

Having ascertained what are the constituent elements of human reason, we know exactly what are the constituent elements of eternal reason, of intelligence in itself, therefore of God; for these three

ideas in their unity and triplicity are in fact God himself. Now creation can take place only in accordance with those principles which compose the divine mind. In that divine mind we recognize these three ideas; hence these three ideas must be reproduced in all the works of creation. The eternal world, the intellectual world, the moral world must all come under the dominion of these three ideas. And as there are no other ideas in the divine mind, so no other ideas can exist in the world or in humanity. And again; humanity can manifest no other ideas in its deeds or acts, that is, in history, but what pre-exist in human reason; and as no other ideas can or do exist in human reason, so there can exist in human history no other but these three ideas. We know now *a priori*, what we are to look for in the history of mankind.

There are also other extreme consequences which, by a most rigidly logical inference, may be fairly deduced from this proposition; to wit, *the infinite development of human intelligence, and the infinite perfectibility of human nature.* As no other elements exist in the divine mind but what are to be found also in the human intelligence; and as the former is the type and original of the latter, according to which the latter is to manifest and fashion itself; it is evident that the reach of the divine mind is the only *terminus* of human intelligence; and towards this terminus the human intelligence must approximate to eternity. As this is also the condition of human nature, we may thence deduce, by a parity of reasoning, the indefinite perfectibility of human nature; viz., a capacity for a degree of perfection that is only to be defined and limited by the divine nature. Indeed, this doctrine has been professed, in all its length and breadth, and in so many words, by no inconsiderable number of first rate minds. "As physical life itself, with its given bounds, presented an objection, which threatened to beat down this hypothesis at a single blow; the chimera of perfectibility has been pushed to the extreme of assuring us, that the physical life of man might not only be extended more or less, but, that the progress of natural science and of a wise philosophy might prolong it almost indefinitely;" so that we might arrive almost at immortality in this world, and attain to a degree of knowledge equal to that possessed by deity. This, if we mistake not, was roundly asserted by Condorcet, and has of late years become quite a popular and common place sort of declamation, habitual even in the mouths of the vulgar, and to which recent discoveries and inventions seem to give a kind of air of probability. We are not aware that this belief, apart from the false philosophy which lies at the bottom of it, is other than a harmless delusion, more redolent of vanity and presumption than of any serious mischief; while, as a *per contra*, it might inspire men to execute great deeds, which otherwise would not be attempted from a belief that they were impracticable. We must, however, do Cousin the justice to say that he denies flatly any such inference, and disavows the doctrine *toto celo*; for in another place he says, "The development of man's intelligence is *not* infinite, it is finite; *it is measurable by the nature and the reach of that intelligence itself.*" The latter member of this sentence, which we have placed in Italics is totally unintelligible and inappli-

cable when taken in conection with the first portion of it; for it does not appear that *the nature and the reach* of this intelligence is finite any more than it is infinite; and indeed he elsewhere, in numberless other passages, gives abundant reason to infer, that he considers man, as a recipient of life from God; and humanity as destined to manifest the infinite perfections of the divine essence. Here, therefore, is an evident contradiction which no kind of logic can reconcile.

The condition of history is time, difference, succession. The different elements of human consciousness are developed in history by the hand of time, only on condition of their existing successively; and consequently on condition that each of them shall make its appearance, one after the other. This is an inevitable consequence of *reflection;* for we must here state that the development of the human intelligence is of a two-fold nature; it is *spontaneous* and *reflective;* what is meant by these terms will be seen as we advance. The *successive* appearance in history of the different elements of human reason, we repeat, is an inevitable consequence of the reflective method of its development; for *reflection* can lay hold of or contemplate but one thing at a time; and what *reflection* is to the individual, *history* is to the human race. These three ideas, then appear upon the stage of history successively, one after the other, and in the order in which we have named them. The separate and complete development of one of these ideas constitute an epoch. As there are in human reason but three ideas to be developed, so in history there can be but three epochs; to wit, the epoch of the infinite, the epoch of the finite, and the epoch of the relation of the two. When one epoch has been completed it gives way to another, or rather is *forced* off the stage; for an epoch does not, of its own accord, retire voluntarily from the scene, but is compelled with fire and sword, to give room to the new epoch which is to succeed it. When all the epochs have been completed, the circuit is renewed; each reappears and disappears in the same order as before. The external forms or visible symbols into which each of these epochs develops itself are, its industry, its government, its fine arts, its religion, and lastly its philosophy.

We are reluctant to question the accuracy of so close and lucid a reasoner as M. Cousin. It is with fear and trembling we arraign his decision before the tribunal of criticism—for while charging him with error and inconsistency, we are not sure we are not betraying our own ignorance of the vast scope and comprehensiveness of his philosophy. Indeed, we would rejoice to be convicted of ignorance, if by that means his philosophy could be proved to be infallibly true; for we could then indulge the hope that at least a modicum of peace would visit the mind, sufficient to satisfy for a season the incessant craving after a knowledge which, like a mirage, seems doomed to recede before us and to escape us as fast as we approach towards it. Nevertheless we must proceed, wishing rather that we should prove ourselves wrong than that we should prove him so.

No man can be, or seem to be, more zealous in the cause of freedom, human and divine, than M. Cousin; he every where asserts

and vindicates the freedom of man. We will now ask, does the human race freely, voluntarily undertake to develop these ideas, and to develop them in the order named? Does it undertake this task knowingly, designedly, intentionally? Nothing of the sort; the human race is perfectly innocent of any such intention. It neither knows any thing of what it is doing, nor does it exercise any will, or choice, or discretion in the matter; nor has it any power to refuse to act or fail to develop them. Cousin demonstrates the *impersonality* of human reason at the same time that he asserts the freedom of man; nay, he demonstrates the one by contrasting it with the other; and he categorizes, enumerates, and codifies, as it were, the fixed, eternal, and peremptory laws of reason, which enter into it to control and rule over it, just as reason enters into man to control and rule over him.

Well, then; reason is impersonal; it belongs not to man; it is an independent power which is extraneous to him, and enters into him only to govern him by compulsion. We will here take no notice of the double action which Cousin assigns to reason, viz., its spontaneous action and its reflective action, for it will only complicate without elucidating our remarks. Reflection, according to Cousin, originates nothing; it deals only with the contents of memory; it is retrospective merely. All that reflection can do, that is, human agency properly so called, is to cast its eye over the past, clear up, explain, and legitimate what has been; reflection adds itself to that which was, it throws light upon that which is, but it creates nothing. This, then, confines us, in our strictures, to the spontaneous reason, which originates all things; which is the eternal and changeless type and exemplar of all things; which, in manifesting itself in the facts of human history, suffices for itself, and dispenses entirely with impersonality, with human will or freedom; which, in point of fact, carries away man whithersoever and howsoever it pleases, or rather not as it pleases, but according to the inward necessity of its own being; for if providence be present in history, it must manifest itself there by necessary laws; and by consequence, providence must be as important to resist these laws as humanity itself is. M. Cousin is particular to admonish us, and presses the admonition with great force and vigor, that all the facts of human history must pre-exist in the spontaneous intelligence, that is to say, in the impersonal reason. It follows, then, that the facts of human history, as far as man's will or freedom is concerned, must be as impersonal in their principle and origin as reason itself; and not only so in their principle and origin, but equally so in their transpirations or *actual* existence; for according to him, men are nothing more than unconscious agents employed by the impersonal reason to execute a purpose of its own, a medium through which it percolates, as it were, and gives its own inherent facts to history; that is to say, through which it actualizes the three ideas or elements of which it is composed.

This theory, we repeat, renders the facts of history as impersonal as reason itself is, which originates them; that is, the acts which men do, and of which history takes cognizance, are not their own voluntary, free-will acts and deeds, but are the acts and deeds of the impersonal reason, and must therefore themselves be impersonal. If, therefore, all

the events which transpire in the history of humanity are impersonal, that is, do really come from God, and are not the free, conscious, voluntary acts of individual men. What in this case becomes of man's liberty? Where is his free-will? And if God manifest himself in history only by necessary laws which are as obligatory upon him as upon humanity. Where is God's liberty? What, in this case, we ask again, becomes of human responsibility? What becomes of the responsibility of individuals? This theory, if true, sweeps away, as so many cobwebs, all preconceived notions of rules and laws, of rights and duties, implying the idea of *obligation*, obedience, and responsibility. Responsibility is a consequence of freedom, and rests upon freedom as its base. One cannot exist without the other; as freedom generates responsibility, so responsibility implies freedom. Men cannot be responsible for that which they cannot control, or for acts which they do unconsciously and without the intervention of any free will of their own; yet we have seen that in the spontaneous activity of reason, which Cousin makes so efficacious in human affairs, men cannot possibly have any free action of their own; for in that case, they might choose to act in one direction, and reason in another; in such event, the two contrary actions would neutralize each other, and immobility would result. M. Cousin leaves no room here for cavil or doubt; he is particular and explicit in his statement, that in spontanity we are not active at all, but passive, that we are siezed and carried away by a force not our own, a force which we are impatient to resist, and of which we can give no account. This doctrine completely identifies the actions of man and the actions of God; that is, it makes them one and identical, and is pantheism outright, or at the least, very much on the declivity towards "pure pantheism." And according to this view also, there can be no *crimes* committed either by nations or individuals. Indeed, our author, in the lofty *historical Optimism* which, he says, he does himself the honor to profess, utterly acquits the History of Humanity of all manner of *blame* whatever, and expressly forbids us to find fault with or to complain at any thing which may transpire in the life of the race, for we would thereby accuse humanity and Him that made it. If humanity in the aggregate can do no wrong, then neither can individuals; for humanity is made up of individuals; and as this theory abrogates *crimes*, it must abrogate also meritorious acts, and abolish the doctrine of rewards and punishments. These are some of the extreme consequences that are legitimately deducible from our authors premises. If the reader be prepared to admit their truth, then he may be matriculated a disciple of the Eclectic school of philosophy.

But the consequences of our author's demonstrations are *yet* greater. True, he does not, in so many words, abolish individual responsibility; he does more—he abolishes individuals themselves. History, he says, knows no individuals; there are no individuals in history. In the face of this declaration, and much more to the same purpose, he denominates history the drama or epopee of the human race. We might very reasonably enquire, how this can be? In annihilating individuals, the human race is annihilated along with them; for, we just said, the human race is made up of individuals, and exist only in and through

individuals, and individuals are eminently *personal* and complete in their personality. As, then, according to Cousin, there are no individuls, or at least as history does not concern itself with individuals, it must be the drama or epopee of the impersonal reason; and, indeed, he characterizes history as the *last counter-stroke of the Divine action—a reverberation of the agency of God.*

A drama requires a theatre, a stage, where it can be performed—the world is here for that purpose. Upon this theatre somebody must appear to perform the piece—this somebody is humanity. Masses are the foundation of humanity; they fill the stage of history, but figure there only in dumb show; the part they perform is mute, and they leave, so to speak, the expression of word and gesture to some eminent individuals who represent them, Then, PLACES, NATIONS, GREAT MEN—here are the three requisites for the performance of this drama, which is already prepared beforehand, and the parts all written out, the actors of which are mere puppets moving at the will of the mighty prompter, who stands behind the scenes and pulls the wires that give them motion.

And again; nothing is insignificant; every thing has some meaning; every thing has a reason for existing, its idea, its principle, its law. The world of ideas is hidden within the world of facts; facts in themselves, and looked upon only as to their exterior surface, are insignificant; but impregnated by reason they manifest the idea which they envelope, they become reasonable and intelligible. The first duty of the philosophic historian, therefore, is to ask facts what they signify, what ideas they express. If every thing express some idea, then Places, Nations, Great Men are, all of them, but the manifestations of some one of those hidden ideas which the philosophy of history is to disengage and bring to light. Therefore, every place, every territory represents necessarily an idea, and by consequence one of the three ideas to which have been referred all ideas. A place represents either the idea of the infinite, or the idea of the finite, or the idea of the relation of the finite to the infinite; such is the formula which the philosophy of history imposes upon every place; and such is the formula which our author pledges himself to draw forth from every given place. The physical geography of any country being given, he will tell, *a priori*, what will be the subsequent history of its inhabitants; he will tell what will be their qualities, their national characteristics, and what part they will act in history;—not accidentally, but necessarily; not at any particular epoch, but in all;—in short, what idea that people are called to represent. Places, therefore, like every thing else, have their laws; and when a place bears a specific character, it leads irresistibly to a specific development of humanity. Very well; let us examine how this theory is sustained by facts already recorded in history; it is valiant before the future which cannot refute it; let us see if it be so puissent in the presence of the past which has a tongue and can speak for itself.

The geographical positions of Egypt, of Greece, of Rome, of Jerusalem, have remained the same since those ancient times when such mighty deeds, which by their vastness seem to dwarf the modern history of the world, were being enacted in them. All these coun-

tries occupy precisely the same latitudes, and retain precisely the same configurations, the same climates, winds, waters, &c. now as then; it would therefore follow, according to Cousin, that their inhabitants must necessarily possess the same qualities, and must enact the same part in the drama of history now as then, for the rule holds good through all epochs; and yet. Is this true? Do the present inhabitants of these countries occupy precisely the same page in history as did their ancient population? Do Industry, the Fine Arts, Government, Religion, and Philosophy give for the same or similar results in each or all or any one of these countries? Let us interrogate them *seriatim*.

Can *modern* Greece offer to the admiring historian her parallels for Miltiades, Pericles, Plato, and Alexander of the *ancient?* Can she give to his glowing pages fit substitutes for the Thermopylae, the Marathon, the Platia, and the Salamis of the olden times? All these places are still in Greece, and are eloquent of the *past*, but dumb as to the deeds that have been enacted upon them since, lone and solitary in their former grandeur and fearless of future rivalry. Is modern Athens the seat of learning and the home of the Fine Arts? Have her inhabitants the same philosophy, the same religion, laws, manners and customs as had the ancient inhabitants? Does a Demosthenes still thunder from her forum, or an Appelles speak from the canvass, or an Aristotle preside in her Academic groves? Alas, her oracles are mute, her temples are in ruins! The bat and the owl brood undisturbed where once stood the tripod of the inspired pithoness. "Eternal summer gilds them yet; but all, except their sun, is set."

Rome, too, the eternal city! still sits upon her yellow Tiber. Is she yet, as of yore, the mistress of the world? Where is now the military spirit that formerly animated her indomitable legions, and that hurled them like thunder bolts (*Legio fulminatria*") over an affrighted earth? She once had a Scipio, a Sylla, a Marius, a Caesar, and a Brutus. She has them no longer; her Gracchi sleep the sleep that knows no waking, and will never be revived in their descendants. A mighty change indeed has come o'er the spirit of her dream. Her mail clad warriors and helmeted heroes have been replaced by mitired popes and hooded monks. She is nought now but the grave of giant empires; a mighty tombstone in sublime loneliness amidst the living world, girt about forever by its own desolation.

In Jerusalem, too, the mosques and the menarets of the Moslem now stand where once stood the temple of Solomon; and her Davids, her Solomons, her Ezras, and her Herods, are unrepresented and unparalleled in her modern chronicles. The pyramids of Egypt, which sit like everlasting mountains on the Arabians and Sybian sands, looking out in solitary grandeur upon the silence and desolation around them, still remain but to attest the vast disparity between her present history and the history of her Pharoes. In none of these countries, then, have Industry, Art, Government, Religion, and Philosophy, developed themselves the same in one epoch as in another. The American continent presents a still more striking illustration of the fallacy of this doctrine; for a greater disparity cannot be imagined than exists between its present inhabitants and its aboriginal occupants, or

between the epoch which is now ruling it and the epoch which ruled it under the dynasty of the latter. But let us return to our author.

Nature precedes humanity, and anticipates the laws of humanity; that is, humanity appearing in the bosom of nature has impressed upon it the same laws which governed its antecedent; that is, they both represent the same idea, and must represent it by the same rules. Countries precede their inhabitants, and anticipate the moral laws of their inhabitants. All countries represent an idea or ideas; the inhabitants who appear in them must represent the same idea; for the country imposes its laws upon its inhabitants; hence, the country being given the idea dissolves itself. When a given people presents itself to the philosophy of history, the first question to ask that people is, what idea it represents. As we have just seen, the same interrogatory was propounded to the country, and the country responded correctly as in duty bound; its inhabitants now are presumed to be no less complacent; and in truth they do both reveal the same idea. In all this, it will be perceived, no account is taken of, or allowance made for, differences of race; the geographical laws are peremptory, and fashion the inhabitants, be their race or origin what it may, after their own type and model; the country is the mould into which the people are cast, and the people must come forth fashioned precisely after the form of the mould. We fancy, however, our American readers would be apt to think that, if the country of Mexico were inhabited by the Anglo-Saxon or rather the Anglo-American race, a very different idea would be revealed from what is at present to be obtained therefrom; that in fact, in such an event, its Anglo-American inhabitants would have impressed their own form and laws upon the country; that they would have metamorphosed it, and reconstructed it in their own image; and in giving it their form, as it were, have fixed upon it the impress of their own personality. and would have thereby communicated to it a portion of the worth which resides in themselves. In truth, the mind is almost startled and stand aghast at hearing very recently from our army in Mexico, that far from home as they are, in the heart of a hostile country, a few thousand surrounded by almost as many millions, and in the midst of the dangers and difficulties of actual war and deadly conflicts, they should yet hold meetings for the purpose of taking into *serious consideration* a project to construct a RAIL ROAD from Vera Cruz to the city of Mexico, a rout hitherto deemed by Mexicans as practicable only for mules. We cannot refrain from quoting here, as being very appropriate to the present subject, a beautiful idea of our author, which strangely enough stands in marked contrast and contradiction to the foregoing idea which we have just attempted to refute, but which is still more effectually refuted by Cousin himself in the following sentiment, which we commend both for its truthfulness and for the beautiful language in which it is expressed: "The primitive world is but a basis, a matter fitted for the labor of man; all the value which analysis can leave to it, is the possibility that man should make use of it. There is its noblest destiny; as it is the destiny of man, in his relations with the world, to assimilate that nature unto himself in the utmost possible degree, to metamorphose it, to deposit and exhibit there unceasingly more and more, the freedom and

intelligence with which he is gifted. Industry, it gives me pleasure to repeat, is the triumph of man over that nature the tendency of which was to overwhelm and destroy him, and which retreats before him and is changed in his hands; it is nothing less than the creation of a new world by man; it has no other limits than those of power and of thought; its end is the entire absorption of nature into humanity."

But enough of this. We will now proceed to another topic; a topic, however, growing out of the same *formula* of reason; that topic is *war*, and is one too which is peculiarly interesting at this moment to the American people. To this subject we will consecrate our next article.

INFLUENCE OF RAILROADS.

Hon. J. M. Niles, in his late address before the New Haven County Agricultural Society, makes the following judicious remarks in relation to the influence of railroads:

"It has been supposed by many, that the systems of railroads and canals, by bringing the products of the west into competition with those of the Atlantic States, would operate injuriously to the agricultural interests of the latter, and reduce the value of land. But on a full development of that system, the result will be otherwise. Were agriculture and commerce the only great interests of our country, this consequence might have followed. But manufactures, the other great interest, supply local markets for the farmer; and the railroad system is already exerting a powerful influence in establishing manufactures in the interior, at points remote from tide water; and thus creating local markets for those products of the farm which would not justify transportation to our commercial cities on the seaboard. Whilst railroads bring the great staples of the west into competition with those of the Atlantic States, they enable the latter to send to market, at a good profit, a great variety of products, which could not otherwise be done, and which will not bear transporting from the western States. And this system, by its influence in evolving the various resources of the country, and increasing its wealth, exerts a favorable influence on agriculture generally, and more especially on sections contiguous to our commercial towns and manufacturing districts. Whilst it brings the flour and provisions of the west into the market on the seaboard, it enables the farmers in the Atlantic States to avail themselves of the markets, where local ones do not exist, for hay, milk, vegetables, fruit, and various articles, which, were it not for those facilities, would bear transportation a few miles only."

ART. 4.—THE WEST INDIA ISLANDS.

GEOGRAPHICAL AND POLITICAL IMPORTANCE OF THE WEST INDIES; SPANISH ISLANDS—CUBA AND PORTO RICO, HAVANA, MATANZAS, &C.; TRADE, COMMERCE, POPULATION, RESOURCES, HISTORY, ETC., OF CUBA AND PORTO RICO; FRENCH ISLANDS — MARTINIQUE, GUADALOUPE, ST. MARTINS, MARIE GALANTE, DESIRADE LES SAINTES, THEIR RESOURCES AND COMMERCE; BRITISH WEST INDIES—ANTIGUA, BARBADOES, BURMUDA, ANGUILLA, DOMINICA, GRENADA, MONTSERRAT, NEVIS, ST. CHRISTOPHER, ST. LUCIA, ST. VINCENT, TOBAGO, TRINIDAD, TARTOLA, VIRGIN ISLES, JAMAICA, BAHAMA—ABOLITION OF SLAVERY, PRESENT CONDITION OF THE ISLANDS, &C.; DUTCH ISLANDS—ST. EUSTATIA, LOZA, ST. MARTIN, CURACOA; DANISH ISLANDS—ST. THOMAS, ST. CROIX, ST. JOHN; SWEDISH ISLAND—ST. BARTHOLOMEW; FREE ISLAND—HAYTI; &C., &C.

Reposing on the bosom of the Atlantic, in a line which stretches south-westwardly from the peninsula of Florida, through eighteen degrees of latitude and twenty-five of longitude, and forming, at various distances with the opposing shores of the continent, the basins of the Gulf of Mexico and Carribean Sea, are found those "isles of the sea," so known and famed as the "Western Indies."

Discovered by the earliest western navigators, and colonized by the leading European powers, these islands constitute, at the present day, what may be regarded the few remaining intermediate links between the civilization, government and laws of the old and new world. A love of adventure and an irrepressible thirst for gain, rather than hopes of refuge, competence and homes, were the motives which drove across the deep their restless colonists—and they have looked ever backward, with filial fondness, to the land of their fathers and of their childhood. The laws that governed them, the institutions they maintained, the protection awarded, came all to them from that quarter. It was but natural they should submit, and that few, if any, of those political changes and convulsions which have marked contiguous regions of America should interrupt the loyalty and repose of the islands.

Thus has been preserved in the West Indies, through all the vicissitudes of European and American policy, the close relationship of colony and mother country. Broken into fragments, around which, and between which, is heard the roar of the ocean—separated in religion and in languages, in education and prejudices—of limited population, and lassitude inherent to tropical suns—what other destiny could be reserved than such as despotism or oppression might vouchsafe, in its cunning systems of colonial empire?*

The extension southward, over all barriers and in the face of all opposition, within the past few years, of the arms, institutions and policy of the United States, has given rise to speculations in other countries as well as in our own, in regard to the ultimate fate of the islands, which sweep along our shores. The keenest jealousies are exhibited

* For other information upon West Indies, the reader will consult Commercial Review, Vol. I, 180, 182. Vol. IV, 303, 549, etc.

in many quarters.* An injudicious suggestion in our Congress was not calculated to inflame the resentment of Spain less than the similarly injudicious, but more absurd, one ventured in Parliament by Lord Geo. Bentinck.† It has not gone unheeded in our own country.

The peace of the world will not be disturbed by any contests growing out of the possession, by European powers, of these remote dominions: while amity shall last, their relationships will remain inviolate. In the event, however, of a general war, many and great will be the changes immediately involved. The United States could not, from her position and connections, from considerations of preservation and safety, be a quiet spectator of these changes. Indeed, it may be questioned whether a justifiable cause for interference would not arise simultaneously with them. The least evidence of court and cabinet intrigues, in relation to the islands, it may be asserted confidently, would be met at once, and resisted. This is our declared policy.

The geographical position of the West Indies, midway between the republics of North and South America—their great fertility and productiveness, their important commercial character and facilities, are all circumstances, taken together, well calculated to give them an interest in the eyes of the world, in any event. A desire for information concerning them has become very general, and seeks to be satisfied from every available source. We have, therefore, determined to bring together every thing that can be derived from the latest and most reliable authorities, and present, as near as may be, to our readers, a fair and impartial summary.

The West India Islands, with the exception of Hayti, a free republic, are all under the jurisdiction of European powers, and are thus classified:

WEST INDIA ISLANDS.

1. *Dependencies of Spain.*
   - Cuba,
   - Porto Rico.

2. *Dependencies of France.*‡
   - Martinique,
   - Gaudaloupe,
   - Part of St. Martins,
   - Marie Galante,
   - Desirade Les Saintes.

3. *Dependencies of England.*§
   - Antigua,
   - Barbadoes,
   - Burmuda,
   - Anguilla,
   - Dominica,
   - Grenada,
   - Montserrat,
   - Nevis,
   - St. Christopher,
   - St. Lucia,
   - St. Vincent,
   - Tobago,
   - Trinidad,
   - Tartola,
   - Virgin Isles,
   - Jamaica,
   - Bahama,
   - Grenadines.

4. *Dependencies of Holl'd.*
   - St. Eustatia,
   - Saba,
   - St. Martin,
   - Curacoa.

5. *Dependancies of Denm'k.*
   - St. Thomas,
   - St. Croix,
   - St. John.

6. *Dependency of Sweden.*
   - St. Bartholomew.

7. *Independent Island.*
   - Hayti.

* In a private letter from Madrid we are informed, that when application was made by Louisiana to search the Spanish archives for records of her early history, a report got wind, even in high places, that the object was to vamp up a *title to Cuba as part of Louisiana!* Fancy the absurd consternation.

† To seize upon Cuba in satisfaction of the debt due by Spain—to liberate the slaves—to fortify the island as commanding the Gulf of Mexico and Mississippi valley.

‡ French Guayana and Cayenne will be considered with the French American possessions hereafter.

§ British Guayana and Honduras are generally classed from their vicinity with the West India possessions. We shall consider them in another place.

AREA AND POPULATION ISLANDS, 1838.*

	Area sqr. miles English.	Whites and European Creoles.	Indians and free col'd.	Slaves.	Total Pop.
Spanish,	58.226	400.000	80.000	540.000	1.020.000
French,	125.112	95.000	———	184.856	280.000
British,	———	———	———	———	389.459
Dutch,	10.666	58.800	7.000	72.200	85.000
Danish,	170	6.000	3.000	38.000	46.000
Swedish,	43	1.992	580	5.428	8.000
Hayti,	28.302	23.000	———		935.000

1. Dependencies of Spain.—This early maritime power exercised for a long period the empire of the seas, and sought in colonial possessions all over the world, that state and magnificence which little at home could give. Her navigators first descried American soil, and coveted the wealth it was deemed to embody. The history of Spanish progression in the western seas has been marked by rapacity, extortion and blood.

Cuba was reached by Columbus in October, 1492, and retains the name by which it was called by the aborigines, though other titles have been, at different periods, assigned it: as Juana, Ferdinandina, Santiago, Ave Maria, etc. Its shortest distance from the United States is one hundred and thirty miles—viz: from Point Jacobs to Cape Tancha, on the Florida coast. The curvilinear length of the island is eight hundred miles, and the breadth varies from twenty-five to one hundred and thirty miles. In soil the island is fertile, except where the limestone is found above the surface. The forests are vast, and mahogany and other valuable woods are native. There are abundant mines of copper and coal, but none of the precious metals. Asphaltum, marble, and jasper are found. Sugar, coffee, and tobacco are the chief agricultural products, and their cultivation has progressed amazingly since the trade of the island was made free, in 1809. Population, in 1775, 170.370; 1791, 272.140; 1817, 551,998; 1827, 704.487; 1841, whites 418.291, slaves 436.495, free negroes and colored, 152,838; total population, 1.007.624. We have no later returns, although from the extraordinary prosperity of the island, and rapid progress of the slave trade, a very large increase of population might be fairly supposed in seven years.

The export of sugar in 1760, was stated at 5.000.000lbs.; in 1800, it reached 40.000.000; 1820, 100.000.000; 1837, Custom House returns, to which one-fourth for smuggling is added, 283.126.695lbs. The number of coffee plantations has increased from eighty, in 1800, to seven hundred and seventy-nine in 1817, two thousand and sixty-seven in 1827, etc. The tobacco culture has steadily increased. In 1826, the export of cigars was 197,000lbs, which, in 1837, reached 792.438 lbs. Indigo and cotton have declined. From the abundance of cattle, hides have become an important article of export. We proceed to furnish later tables and returns of agriculture and commerce.

The following table exhibits the commerce of Cuba with all nations, for sixteen years. 1223 M'Culloch.

* There are no later returns, and it may be assumed that these fall short of the reality now, in some points.

COMMERCE OF CUBA WITH ALL NATIONS.

	Imports.						Exports.					
Years.	National Commerce.	In National vessels.	U. States.	England.	S. American Ports.	France.	National Commerce.	In National vessels.	U. States.	England.	Sp. Am. Ports.	France.
	$	$	$	$	$	$	$	$	$	$	$	$
1826	2.858.793	314.683	5.632.808	1.323.627		1.169.451	1.992.689	185.879	3.894.597	1.583.474		1.162.218
1827	2.541.322	349.728	7.162.695	1.618.371		1.472.204	2.284.250	184.059	4.107.449	1.605.073		1.043.618
1828	4.523.302	431.553	6.599.096	1.770.085		1.635.855	1.556.224	717.479	3.176.964	1.611.820		754.812
1829	4.961.043	844.826	5.734.765	1.837.775		1.254.947	2.292.580	562.653	3.191.535	1.729.404		909.808
1830	4.739.776	1.051.538	4.791.544	1.745.388		721.648	3.740.737	543.267	4 286.782	1.233.594		757.736
1831	4.121.829	1.825.890	4.690.308	1.465.983		669.604	2.193.761	723.338	3.921.592	1.567.720		441.085
1832	3.576.707	3.178.596	3.542.936	1.257.964		805.823	2.173.567	993.404	3.108,466	2.110.686	16.678	360.899
1833	3.185.781	4.777.580	4.461.472	1.625.173	1.371.786	927.491	1.854.714	1.274.440	4.386.885	910.918	16.214	531.321
1834	3.412.487	4.970.013	3.690.101	1.676.918	1.747.224	906.414	2.074.502	1.401.568	3.824.724	2.081.387	10.275	667.431
1835	3.508.349	5.200.955	5.409.919	1.689.465	2.084.552	904.140	1.801.092	1.114.695	4.365.569	1.754.676	36.185	603.985
1836	4 470.725	5.680.070	6.553.281	1.522.429	1.579.588	817.445	2.348.453	917.733	5.513.924	1.700.115	248.323	489.654
1837	4.359.153	4.966.191	6.548.557	1.373.964	1.099.367	861.360	2.919.474	1.294.282	5.792.623	2.990.466	30.562	1.344.608
1838	4.460.987	6.163.152	6.202.002	1.439.300	1.713.650	816.954	2.692.159	1.532.840	5.574.591	3.083.328	70.985	771.574
1839	5.320.515	7.108.704	6.132.794	1.770.499	1.467.125	714.664	2.719.792	1.951.785	5.528.045	5.141.098	37.219	845.906
1840	5.295.261	6.684.718	5.654.125	1.439.199	915.541	618.461	3.473.630	2.044.441	5.660.739	6.749.438		908.605
1842	5.557.351		6.200.221	3.110.698	2.487.894	1.476.752	3.729.970		5.282.594	9.259.606	301.562	1.617.712

Years.	Imports. Hanse, Towns, &c.	Baltic.	Italy and Portugal.	Warehouse.	Total.	Exports. Hanse, Towns, &c.	Baltic.	Italy and Portugal.	Warehouse.	Total.
	$	$	$	$	$	$	$	$	$	$
1826	1.631.125	16.849	218.794	1.759.621	14.925.754	2.998.154	487.223	200.761	1.312.839	13.809.838
1827	1.640.011	192.826	309.047	2.066.646	17.352.854	2.651.083	487.288	439.402	1.483.966	14.286.192
1828	2.082.906	176.027	282.584	2.033.507	19.534.922	2.809.229	783.521	237.289	1.473.020	13.114.362
1829	1.346.775	87.886	115.293	2.521.442	18.695.856	2.406.813	904.920	303.540	1.653.247	13.952.405
1830	1.701.358	81.958	102.116	1.236.283	16.171.562	2.448.290	1.035.268	334.137	1.521.144	15.870.968
1831	1.808.899	20.632	50.582	895.061	15.548.791	2.188.299	544.839	443.466	890.644	12.918.711
1832	1.918.197	33.843	87.884	796.511	15.198.465	2.590.813	1.135.525	393.574	737.009	13.595.117
1833	1.145.967	90.931	96.754	828.193	18.511.132	1.771.381	1.137.774	250.511	815.813	13.996.100
1834	8.555.363	19.215	151.151	1.134.407	18.563.300	2.289.782	1.081.284	101.443	956.615	14.487.955
1835	619.211	55.687	145.443	1.107.345	20.722.072	2.076.001	994.771	158.926	1.179.252	14.059.246
1836	766.959	59.068	92.628	1.009.771	22.551.969	1.934.935	1.029.570	264.730	1.132.942	15.398.245
1837	565.048	28.341	95.450	2.639.521	22.940.357	2.713.586	644.018	523.106	1.875.918	20.346.407
1838	916.498	79.193	64.593	2.873.545	24.729.878	2.698.163	1.646.953	366.643	1.674.287	20.471.102
1839	552.078	124.405	36.099	2.087.911	25.217.796	2.054.088	266.401	424.905	2.478.848	21.481.848
1840	1.010.291	47.914	29.492	3.357.172	24.700.189	2.835.620	924.398	319.941	2.987.745	25.941.783
1842	3.402.395	188.354	191.464	2.021.394	24.637.527	3.588.917	770.667	326.652	1.807.536	26.684.701

The imports of specie from 1839 to 1842, ranged from $781,631 to $2,207,178, and the exports from $1,000,000 to $1,700,000, during the same time. Of the whole import in 1842, $9,239,089 were in foreign, and $15,398,430 in Spanish vessels. Of the exports, however, $20,611,789 were in the ships of foreign powers, and but $6,072,813 in those of the mother country or the island.

ARTICLES OF IMPORT.

	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842
Liquors,	2.309.558	1.999.958	2.429.910	2.302.701
Provisions,	1.885.402	1.836.254	2.180.373	2.093.711
Spices,	119.224	114.332	60.274	45.584
Fruits,	226.234	229.306	227.569	263.787
Breadstuffs,	3.444.850	3.751.568	4.012.498	3.506.383
Linens,	2.634.286	2.445.255	1.943.880	3.043.220
Shoes and Leather,	651.256	524.934	384.687	385.894
Lumber,	1.292.777	1.331.053	1.379.158	1.319.343
Oils,	1.015.728	1.105.741	1.443.180	1.449.750
Fish,	398.711	439.739	431.096	448.475
Miscellaneous,	292.296	296.727	290.789	346.394
Woolens,	281.065	357.842	195.246	275.936
Cotton manufactures,	3.086.707	4.132.722	1.875.065	1.749.321
Silks,	484 062	432.551	304.302	386.064
Metals,	2.806.697	1.701.852	1.173.995	1.497.392
Miscellanies,	4.196.306	4.191.105	3.183.025	3.834.988
In Warehouse,			3.299.483	2.021.394

The following from the *Diario de la Marina*, exhibits the export of a few principal articles from Cuba, from 1840 to 1846. We have been unable to obtain later returns that are reliable.

EXPORT CUBA—1841-46.

	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.	1845.
Sugar, cases,	829.556	817.643	889.103	1.009.565	475.286
Tobacco, unmanuf'd, value	$719.369	742.854	901.030	585.156	834.621
" manufact'd "	$1.677.743	1.454.269	2.566.250	1.564.250	1.261.300
Mahogany, "	66.261	56.161	108.370	166.909	212.480
Cedar,	21.071	40.101	43.947	44.046	65.218
Copper,	4.505.490	4.981.405	2.013.534	2.003.587	2.199.202

VALUE IMPORTS AND EXPORTS CUBA—1840-44.

	Imports.	*Exports.*	*Difference.*
1840	$24.700.189	25.941.783	1.214.594
1841	25.081.408	26.774.614	1.693.206
1842	24.637.527	26.684.701	2.047.174
1843	23.422.096	25.029.792	1.607.696
1844	25.056.231	25.426.591	370.360

Of the imports for 1844, $5.726.271,50 were the products of Spain, brought in Spanish bottoms, except the insignificant amount of $26.972. Of the foreign imports into Cuba the same year, $6.436.735 were in Spanish bottoms. The *Balanza Mercantile* finds occasion of complaint in relation to foreign shipping, that the trade in Spanish vessels is, in place of increasing, as was hoped for, yearly on the decline. We shall see directly, the commercial, or navigation system, which prevails.

AMERICAN TRADE WITH CUBA.

Years.	*Imports from U. S.*	*Exports to U. S.*	*Difference.*
1842	$6.200.221	5.282.574	917.647
1843	5.938.073	5.224.068	714.005
1844	7.598.661	6.532.292	1.066.369

The history of the Spanish colonies, either continental or island, presents the same pictures of wrong and oppression. They have been regarded, in every period of their existence, by the home government, as entitled to no other rights or privileges than such as might be tolerated by an avaricious despotism. The colonial code asserted the most monstrous principles, whose execution was a warfare against humanity itself. Rapacity and extortion were familiar to the rulers, and to indulge them to the best purpose and with impunity, the darling object of every measure. The crimes which have thus been committed, shock us by their atrocity, and paved the way for those South American and Mexican revolutions, which resulted so happily in independence. With all her greediness of wealth, however, what has been the progress of Spain, and how miserable and abject is her condition withal!

To give some idea of this colonial system, we would remark, that the whole property was considered as vested in the crown of Spain. It was a capital offense to carry on trade with foreigners, and even the different colonies were forbidden any intercourse. They were not permitted to cultivate certain articles, and the crown reserved the monopoly of others. No other than a native of Spain could fill an office of trust or honor, under the state. Intolerance and bigotry in religion were maintained, and knowledge itself proscribed as dangerous.

The West India Islands, from their extraordinary fertility, experienced less of the ills of these restrictions, at all times; but latterly, the increase of smuggling operations and the impossibility of the colonists being supplied by the mother country with articles of consumption, as well as the progress of more liberal principles, have induced many important modifications in the commercial system of the islands. However, as will be seen directly, a thousand abuses are still suffered to remain.

TARIFF OF DUTIES ADOPTED MARCH 1, 1846.

	Valuation.	Rate of Duty per ct.
Ale, cask.....arroba.	$1 50	33½
Ale, bottles.....dozen.	3 —	33½
Apples.....bbl.	3 —	27½
Barrels, empty.....each.	— 50	27½
Beef.....bbl.	9 —	33½
Beef, jerked.....arroba.	1 75	27½
Beef, smoked.....qtl.	7 —	33½
Beans.....arroba.	— 75	33½
Beer, cask.....arroba.	1 50	32½
Beer.....bottles, doz.	3 —	33½
Biscuit.....box, 4 lb.	— 75	33½
Boards, white and yellow pine.....M. ft.	20 —	27½
Bricks.....M.	12 —	32½
Butter.....qtl.	14 —	27½
Candles, tallow.....qtl.	12 —	33½
Candles, sperm.....qtl.	32 —	27½
Cheese, American....qtl.	10 —	27½
Coal.....ton.	3 75	32½
Cocoa, Caraccas.....qtl.	16 —	27½
Cocoa, all other.....qtl.	6 —	27½
Cod Fish.....qtl.	3 50	27½
Cordage, tarred.....qtl.	12 —	33½
Cordage, Manilla.....qtl.	7 50	33½
Cotton.....qtl.	10 —	27½
Cider.....bottles, doz.	3 —	35½
Flour, bbl., fixed duty....	— —	89 59
Hams.....qtl.	10 —	33½
Hay.....qtl.	— 50	27½
Herring..bxs. of 100 fish.	— 62	33½
Hogsheads, casks...each.	2 —	27½
Hoops.....M.	30 —	27½
Horses, geldings....each.	150 —	33½
Lard.....qtl.	12 —	33½
Mackerel.....bbl.	3 —	27½
Nails, copper.....qtl.	25 —	27½
Nails, iron.....qtl.	7 —	27½
Oars.....100 ft.	6 25	27½
Oil, sperm and whale..qtl.	10 —	27½
Onions.....qtl.	1 50	33½
Paper, letter.....ream.	2 50	33½
Paper, wrapping....ream.	— 50	33½
Pork.....bbl.	14 —	33½
Pork, sides.....qtl.	9 —	27½

Potatoes	bbl.	2 50	27½
Rice	qtl.	6 —	33½
Scantling	M. ft.	18 —	27½
Shingles	M.	3 75	27½
Shooks, sugar box	each.	— 75	27½
Shooks, hhd	each.	1 —	27½
Soap, bar	qtl.	8 —	33½
Staves	M.	25 —	27½
Tallow	qtl.	7 50	27½
Tar	bbl.	3 —	27½
Tongues, smoked	qtl.	7 —	27½

EXPORT DUTIES.

Coffee	qtl.	20
Rum	pipes.	Free.
Molasses	hhds.	Free.
Honey	hhd.	$1 37
Sugar	box.	37
Cigars	M.	50
Tobacco	qtl.	1 50

This Tariff took effect on the 1st of March 1846, and on same date the tonnage duty was re-imposed upon vessels loading molasses.

In calculating the duty on imports, 1 per cent. on the amount of duty must be added, called *balanza*.

This is the latest tariff. The valuations are fixed, which of course take away the main characteristic of an *ad valorem* tariff. Discriminations in favor of Spanish shipping are still rigidly observed. Thus, according to McGreggor, foreign produce and manufactures in Spanish bottoms, from a foreign port, pay 17¼ and 21¼, and Spanish produce and manufactures in foreign bottoms, from a Spanish port, pay the same, and foreign produce and manufactures in Spanish bottoms, direct from the peninsula, pay 13¾ and 16¾. Spanish produce and manufactures, in Spanish bottoms (except flour), direct from the peninsula, pay 6¼ per cent. on the valuation in the tariff; but after having touched at any foreign port, they pay duty as if shipped from that port. The rates of duty here given, were before the adoption of the tariff of 1846.

The export duties are, upon foreign flags, 6¼ per cent. upon the valuation of tariff. Spanish flag, for a foreign port, 4½ per cent.; Spanish flag, for a Spanish port, 2¼ per cent., except loaf sugar and clayed sugar, the latter of which pays 1.6 per 100lbs., in foreign bottoms.

From the circular of Messrs. Tyng & Co., Havana, 1847, we glean some interesting particulars regarding the Cuban trade. Vessels must have a clean bill of health from the Spanish consul, at the place of departure, or stand quarantine. Passports are delivered to the Governor's adjutant by all passengers, and manifest of cargo, &c., to Custom House officer. The correspondence is taken by the Post officer. Wharfage on goods, &c., unless the contrary is stipulated, is paid by the ship. Vessels loaded with molasses, pay no tonnage duties. The rates of commission on purchases at Havana, are 2½ per cent. Sales, 5 per cent. Guarantee, 2½; indorsing and negotiating bills on Europe, 2½; on United States, 1½; collecting freight, 2½; procuring freight, 5; disbursements, 2½ per cent.

Sugar is brought to market till July, but mostly in March, April, and May. It is "clayed" or "Muscovado"—but mostly clayed. The clayed is in boxes, and the Muscovado in casks. The production of *Coffee* has greatly decreased. It begins ripening in August, is picked till January, and brought to market mostly in that and the preceding and following month. Is packed on plantations, and sold by brokers. The export of *Molasses* is chiefly to the United States. It is carted from estates to shipping points, the earliest being in December. The valuation is by the keg of 5½ gallons, and the wooden cask is valued at 5½ cents a gallon. *Honey* is exported largely, but is full of impurities. *Tafia*, or Spanish brandy, made from the refuse of sugar houses, is sold by the pipe. *Tobacco* is divided into two classes, according to the

place of production, whether east or west of Havana. That from the east is very inferior. The Calidad is the best tobacco. The secundas, an inferior class of wrappers, &c. The crop appears in market in July. *Wax* is shipped in cakes, fifteen inches wide, thirty long, and three thick. The regalia *Cigars* are manufactured from the libra, or Calidad tobacco. Those for the English market are put up in large cedar cases, of from fifteen to thirty thousand.

There are twelve ports in Cuba, at which export and import duties are collected. The value of the trade of these, and amount of duties, are given below.

TRADE OF THE SPANISH WEST INDIA PORTS, 1842.

	Imports.	*Duties.*	*Exports.*	*Duties.*
Havana,	$18.801.913	4.449.215	13.118.585	710.613
Cuba,	2.382.938	531.673	6.784.765	153.096
Nuevitas,	171.383	65.116	205.116	9.967
Matanzas,	1.801.558	525.352	4.365.926	328.078
Trinidad,	828.185	215.145	1.129.501	91.152
Baracoa,	87.490	18.741	85.233	2.932
Gibara,	172.084	38.189	248.763	19.089
Cienfugos,	195.935	78.603	509.806	35.478
Manzanillo,	117.031	48.041	170.984	12.981
Santo Espiritu,	14.906	7.158	23.488	2.140
Santa Cruz,	44.589	21.517	34.322	4.981
San Juan,	19.519	6.877	8.208	1.203
	24.637.430	6.005.627	26.684.697	1.371.710

We furnish a list of the articles of domestic export the same year. There were also exported $138.349 foreign goods, and $1.807.536 from warehouse.

DOMESTIC EXPORTS CUBA, 1842.

Mahogany,	$ 56.161	Hides	21.130	Tobacco,	1.461.760
Spirits from cane,	204.550	Sweetmeats,	7.091	Other articles,	200.289
Cocoa,	32	Fruits,	49.298	Quicksilver,	*
Cotton,	75.834	Honey,	71.325	Indigo,	†
Coffee,	2.993.269	Molasses,	744.608	Cochipeal,	‡
Sugar	11.447.009	Horses and Mules,	1.205	Coined Gold,	154.055
Cedar	40.101	Fustic,		Coined Silver,	1.136.605
Wax,	290.828	Cattle,		Other metals,	46.903
Copper ore,	4.981.405	Cigars,	749.812		

The manufactured goods imported were from the following countries:

IMPORTS MANUFACTURED GOODS INTO CUBA, 1842.

Countries.	*Cottons.*	*Woolens*	*Linens.*	*Silks*	*Leather.*	*Lumber & Provisions.*
Spain,	$ 35.621	1.452	14.073	67.442	119.113	2.870.287
United States,	80.905	13.217	158.466	69.361	8.620	3.104.945
France,	215.046	18.434	665.634	102.943	52.039	184.293
England,	631.944	171.481	464.687	44.152	20	215.373
Holland,	4.008		1.789			142.350
Belgium,	46.171	14.725	74.320	24.947	38.414	25.461
Germany,	282.151	43.118	1.695.643	19.010	4.177	154.083
Warehouse,	178.117	5.611	158.542	13.491	768	16.970
Other places,	1.552	5.100	383	1.101	60.488	1.106.077
Total,	1.505.515	273.138	3.233.537	342.447	283.639	7.819.839

* In 1839, $0.903. † In 1810, $210.344. ‡ In 1839, $254.300.

Taxation in Cuba is prodigious, a half million of whites paying $12.000.000. to be expended mostly abroad. Foreigners are strictly watched. They must buy passports, and give security for good conduct. Their baggage is subjected to search. They must have additional passports for traveling in the island, or for leaving, to gratify avaricious officials. In a thousand annoying ways, these absurd jealousies and prejudices are exhibited, to the manifest detriment of the island.

The interior is, to some extent, now opened by railroads, constructed by English and Americans, of which there are some eight hundred miles. It is marked by many natural beauties, and exhibits high prosperity. The following, from Dr. Wurdeman's Notes, will be interesting:

A Coffee Estate.

"The cherries ripen from August to December, and are all gathered singly by the hand; and as three or four different crops are all ripening at the same time, on each tree, as many separate pickings are required. Brought in baskets from the fields, they are daily exposed to the sun, on the secaderos, but on each night raked together in heaps, and covered by tents of rice straw, to protect them from the heavy dews. After three weeks they become quite dried, and are then fit for the mill. The secaderos often cover a large surface of the batey, or yard; an estate of four hundred thousand trees having twenty-five, each sixty feet long and fifty feet wide. They are made of stones, plastered smoothly over with cement, with raised edges, through which openings, guarded by comb-like gates, permit the rain water to escape, and stop the berries. Sometimes, between the secaderos, plastered gutters are constructed, to convey the water into a general reservoir; which is very useful in a country where every pailfull of that necessary fluid has often to be raised from a well two or three hundred feet deep.

The storehouse is generally about one hundred feet long, fifty feet wide, and twenty feet high, to the eaves of a high pitched roof. Within this large building is also the coffee mill, consisting of a large circular wooden trough, two feet deep, and in width tapering from two feet at the top to one at the bottom. A heavy, solid, wooden wheel plays in it, about six feet in diameter, and eight inches in thickness at its circumference, increasing to two feet at its center. The berries are thus permitted to roll between it and the sides of the trough, which is kept well supplied to prevent their being crushed by the wheel, which cleanses them chiefly by pressing them forcibly against each other. The shaft is fixed at one extremity by a ring to a central post, and, to the other, the ox or horse is attached. The dried cherries, conveyed through a funnel from the store room above, fall into the central space, whence they are thrown into the trough, from which also those already crushed are withdrawn, and sent into the cleansing room. Here they are put into a fanning mill, which not only separates the husks from the berries, but also divides the latter into two sizes, the larger rolling over a wire sieve into another room, while the smaller grains, with the pebbles, fall through it on the floor. The latter are then spread in heaps on long tables, around which the negroes are seated, and the broken and distorted grains are separated and set apart for the use of the planter. For this very quality, rejected by us, and called triage, consists chiefly of the round small grains produced by old trees, and possesses the finest flavor. It is kept from year to year, and when old, is equal to the best Mocha coffee.

It is now fit for market, and is packed in bags of Manilla hemp, the only material that can resist the force, produced by the swelling of the grain, from the absorption of the atmospheric moisture. Some pass the coffee a second time through the mill, which polishes it. A few, before submitting it to this process, mingle it with husks that have been parched by fire, thus painting each grain a dark green; but this deception is readily detected by rubbing them on a white handkerchief. The grinding continues through December, and, by the end of January, the whole crop is generally sent to market."

White Havana Sugar.

"To make the white Havana quality, it is removed from the trough into earthen or tin conical pans, each capable of holding about eighty pounds of the mass,

having at their apices, openings closed with a few dried cane leaves, through which the molasses percolates and falls into the gutters below. Clay, made into a soft paste, by being well mixed with water, is next spread over the sugar about three inches thick. The water, separating slowly from it, passes through the brown sugar below, and washes off the molasses from each grain, converting it into the quality known as Havana white. After a certain time, the mass becomes consolidated, and the loaf is removed from the pan, and carried to the driers—large wooden frames fixed on railways—on which they can be readily rolled under cover of the shed, when it rains. The base of the conical loaf is the whitest, while the apex is of a dirty brown hue, and the intervening portions of a light brown. It is divided into these three kinds by the negroes, who, with their cleavers, walk over the sugar with their bare feet, cutting the masses into small lumps. To a stranger, the sight of two or three dozen half-naked negroes, thus employed, under a broiling sun, and sweating over their task, is far from being pleasant. A machine has, however, been lately invented for crushing the loaves, and the present unclean method will probably be generally abandoned."

COST AND EXPENSE OF SUGAR PLANTATION.

53 cavallerias (1767 acres), @ 250		$13.250	—tribute @ 5 per cent.	$662
100 negroes,	450	45.000	" @ 12	5.400
50 oxen,	50	2.500	" @ 12	300
1 steam engine, and two trains boilers,		15.000	" @ 12	1.800
Purging, and storehouse, etc.,		30.000	" @ 12	3.600
		$105.750		
1 Engineer for 6 months,		$600		
1 Mayordomo, 12 "		360		
1 Mayoral, 12 "		600		
1 ox driver, 12 "		360		
1 negro carpenter and three coopers,		780		
1 white carpenter, twelve months,		720		
1 sugar master, 800 hhds., @ $1,		800		
Physician, each negro per an. @ $2,		200		
Clothing and food for slaves, @ $10,		1.000		
Incidental expenses,		5.000		10,420
Annual expense,				$22.182
Proceeds plantation, 800 hhds. sugar, Muscovado, @ 50,		$40.000		
400 " molasses, @ $5,		2.000		
Annual proceeds,				$42.000

Havana.—This is the most important commercial city in the West Indies, and, until the relaxation of Spanish colonial policy, engrossed nearly the whole foreign trade of Cuba. Its population and prosperity have increased with great rapidity. In 1791, the former was 44.357; in 1810, 96.304; in 1827, 94.023; in 1845, according to Dr. Wurdeman, the city and suburbs, including prisoners and transient persons, did not fall short of 184.508 individuals; 48.860 only, being within the walls. The resident foreigners were 18.977; 15.986 being from Spain and the Canaries, 623 from France, 327 from England, 153 from Italy, 309 from the rest of Europe. There were also 81 from Porto Rico and the Phillippines, 670 from Mexico, Columbia, and Peru, 160 from St. Domingo, 668 from North America. At the present time, this population cannot be less than 200.000.

The streets of Havana are few and narrow, but straight, and crossing each other at right angles. Being without sidewalks, and in the business season crowded, they are difficult of passage. The houses are

constructed of stout masonry, and are very substantial. The value of lots is exhorbitant, and rents are in a similar ratio. Many of the private residences are costly and magnificent structures. Dr. Wurdeman remarks:

"I was shown one belonging to one of the Gomez, that cost five hundred thousand dollars; and without the wall, facing the military parade ground, another was nearly built which, with its pillars and arches, occupied a front as large as some of the minor palaces in Europe. The value of real estate is very high in Havana; a lot of 60 feet square, on which a store was afterwards built, sold a few years ago, for $40.000, and the hotel of my host, that can accommodate from thirty boarders comfortably, to sixty, packed away, as they often are here, commands a rent of six thousand dollars. With such a value set on the land, but little is appropriated to yards, and the whole city may be said to be divided into squares of solid blocks.

"Every window, accessible either from the street or the roofs of neighboring houses, is strongly barricaded with iron bars, while the stout folding doors guarding the only entrance to the whole building, would not be unfit to protect that of a fortress. They are castellated palaces; and with their terraced roofs, their galleries and passages, their barricaded windows and ponderous doors, remind one of the olden Saxon strong holds, which Scott has so graphically described.

"There is no West End in Havana; the stately mansion of the millionare is often in juxtaposition with the magazine of the tasajo; jerked beef, with its sign of a large slice swinging over its door, and its putrid-like odors tainting the air; or its basement, occupied by the tienda, with its stock of lard, garlic and groceries; or the work shops of the humble artizans. Many of the dwellings are, however, only of one story, and their parlors are completely exposed to the gaze of every one, through their large windows which open on the street. Two rows of arm chairs, facing each other, are placed near these, where, during the evening, the older members of the family may be seen seated with their visitors. The younger ones stand within the windows, looking through the interstices of the iron bars, at the pedestrians, and occasionally enjoying the conversation of an acquaintance, as he loiters for a moment to pay a passing compliment."

The suppression of the Monastic Orders in Cuba, and confiscation of their immense possessions, are sufficiently known. But few of the monks are now to be found in the city. The tithes, however, are still collected, but no permission for the erection of a Protestant church can be obtained.

Havana was originally established on the south coast of Cuba, near Batabano, but was removed in 1519, to the present site, on account of the insalubrity of the other. The Governors now reside in the city, though formerly St. Jago de Cuba was selected by them. A French corsair reduced the town to ruins in 1538. In 1655 the English, in an attempt upon Havana, were repulsed with great loss. In 1762 they captured it with sea and land forces, reducing the Moro Castle. This expedition was under the Earl of Albemarle, and consisted of 53 vessels of 2,268 guns and 14,000 soldiers, 2,000 being from New England, Virginia and Jamaica. The Spaniards had 27,000 men, 1,200 guns, and 12 mortars. The resistance was terrible. At the peace of 1763, the city was restored to Spain.

The harbor of Havana is magnificent, and capable of accommodating with safety 1,000 ships. The entrance between the Moro and Punta castles, is 1500 yards long, and, at the narrowest, 350 wide. Depth of water at entrance, 8 fathoms. The wharves are not extensive, the ships lying with stems or sterns to the shore. From the Calanas the view is magnificent.

"Far down lies a forest of masts, the tops of which are hardly on a level with the base of the fortress; and just beyond is the populous city, with its solid blocks

of turreted houses, occupying every space of the level land, and creeping half way up its surrounding hills. Carry your eyes southward, and trace the shores of the little bay, everywhere studded with villas, its bosom covered by the large fleet of vessels from every nation, riding securely at anchor; and the summits of the adjacent heights, crowned by the forts, protecting, while perfectly commanding, the city—presenting, in their sullen grandeur, a strong contrast with the peaceful look of the latter. How dwindled to pigmies are the moving throngs below; yet how the sound of their mingled voices sweeps upward. Even here, you can distinguish almost the words spoken. And that sudden burst of music from those numerous convent bells, playing their merry tunes as if to arouse the buried monks once more to life's joys. Now they cease, and now again they all strike up a din that would start a fireman from the sleep of death."

Discriminating duties are levied at Havana, for the support of the dredging machine, wharf dues, light house fees, health officer's fees, custom house fees, &c. The duties on some articles, where the amount is over $1.000, are payable at stated periods, and the credits, which are sometimes very long, have never yet resulted in loss to the government. Should the consignee's promissory note for the amount not be met, he must ever afterwards pay cash duties. The Spanish coins, weights and measures are as follows:

SPANISH COINS, WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

Coins.—One dollar=eight rials; one Spanish doubloon=seventeen dollars; one South American doubloon= sixteen dollars.

Weights.—One quintal one hundred pounds, or four arrobas of twenty-five pounds, one hundred one and a half pounds English, or forty-six killogrammes.

Measures.—One hundred vrs.= one hundred yards; one hundred and forty vrs.= one hundred French ells or aunes; eighty-one vrs.=one hundred Brab. ells; one hundred and eight vrs =one hundred and sixty Hamburg ells; one fanego= three bushels nearly, or two hundred pounds Spanish; one arroba of wine or spirits= four and one-tenth, one wine gallon, nearly.

The tariff of 1846, established at Cuba, is even more favorable for Spanish vessels than previous ones. The rates of duties, however, on many important articles, have been modified materially. The export duties have also been changed. Foreign vessels pay 23 per cent. additional tonnage duty, to bring them to the Spanish standard of measure. The health officer now receives twelve dollars for a vessel of 300 tons, or six if she be Spanish. The disbursements by a foreign ship master, on a vessel of 160 tons, in all the various charges, reach as high as $900 or $1000. So rigid and unprincipled is the system of exaction which prevails!

We make another extract from notes on Cuba, which is interesting:

"The Spaniards are chiefly the owners of the stores, the Creoles being seldom engaged in commerce. Those containing dry goods belong generally to Asturians, while the sale of groceries and provisions is monopolized by Catalans. These latter are an industrious, shrewd, economical class, and have, perhaps, in consequence of these qualities, received their *sobriquet* of Spanish Jews, which can only be construed into a compliment to the Israelite. A large portion of the commerce of the island is in their hands, as well as a very great part of the wealth. In the interior of the island, they appear to monopolize every branch of trading, from the pack of the humble peddler to the country tienda, with its varied contents, and in the maritime towns, many a commercial house, whose ships cover the sea, is theirs. The Catalan furnishes the planter with all the necessaries for his negroes and plantations; advances money for his crops, which he then sells on commission; and often loans to him the requisite sums to erect his costly sugar works, or make his less expensive coffee estate, but all at an interest ruinous in the present depreciated value of his crops."

EXPORTS OF PRODUCE FROM HAVANA FOR TWELVE YEARS.

YEARS.	SUGAR. boxes.	COFFEE. arrobas.	MOLASSES. hhds.	HONEY. tierces.	WAX. arrobas.	RUM. pipes.	CIGARS. M.	TOBACCO. pounds.
1834...	292.207	915.601	39.283	1.444	22.271	2.479	116.442	540.357
1835...	300.218	793.392	42.355	1.403	23.303	3.583	64.733	660.915
1836...	313.978	839.956	44.778	1.340	20.489	3.009	94 564	1.293.803
1837...	321.657	1.409.789	43.278	1.399	35.414	2.497	143.705	1.119.185
1838...	344.493	864.490	56.451	1.173	20.251	3.976	171.413	1.528.125
1839...	330.624	1.174.996	51.902	1.526	29.535	6.670	153.370	1.359.029
1840...	447.578	1.272.822	47.006	2.113	24.447	8.472	137.067	1.025.262
1841...	346.890	742.570	42.909	1.974	28.815	8.753	159.450	1.452.989
1842...	427.947	1.081.468	37.459	2.643	29.351	6.785	130.727	1.018.990
1843...	461.307	773.043	35.711	2.198	37.048	6.223	152.009	2.138.802
1844...	534.582	579.248	33.812	1.963	31.759	4.966	149.583	1.286.242
1845...	267.595	170.466	20.075	847	31.409	2.727	119.271	1.633.073

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF THE EXPORTS OF SUGAR, COFFEE, AND TOBACCO, FROM HAVANA, FOR THE FIRST SIX MONTHS OF 1846 AND 1847.

PORTS.	SUGAR. boxes.		COFFEE. arrobas.		TOBACCO. manufactured.		TOBACCO. leaf.	
	1846.	1847.	1846.	1847.	1846.	1847.	1846.	1847.
Spain,	74.969	50.466	21.598	23.087	4.654	17.652	474.314	144.402
United States,	52.960	110 532	36.633	68.323	23.483	15.044	407.152	163.191
England,	2.369	57.911	465	1.298	11.103	12.511	104.172	16.625
Cowes,	83.303	62.489	48	2.836	630	1.804	6.933	.....
Baltic,	6.825	24.710	.....	2	1.356	181	.....	.....
Hamb. & Brem.,	41.954	30.586	5.944	21.286	5.801	9.971	877.021	249.408
Holland,	5.956	15.569	12	146	766	1.350	25.100	.....
Belgium,	8.840	17.370	6	16	1.278	1.779	9.500	7.875
France,	15.973	13.437	13.944	97.764	19.981	19.588	50.872	131.000
Trieste & Venice,	8.464	8.796	14.821	47.830	360	5.513	.....	1.102
Italy,	6.883	3.947	800	8.282	1.588	653	9.358	.....
Other ports,	5.131	6.489	1.559	11.331	2.620	2.162	51.644	6.690
Total,	513.318	401.302	95.530	282.201	75.620	88.208	2.016.066	720.293

TONNAGE OF HAVANA, 1844—5.

1844.		*Tons.*	1845.		*Tons.*
American vessels arrived	866...	161.395	Vessels	543...	98.245
British	116...	58.338		109...	55.916
Spanish	526...	79.978		575...	88.523
Dutch	21...	3.981		19...	2.838
Belgian	15...	4.054		13...	3.017
French	25...	5.772		21...	4.550
Hamburgh	15...	3.290		6...	1.261
Bremen	27...	5.027		20...	3.679
Danish	23...	4.731		10...	1.605
Others	46...	11.298		63...	14.649
Total	1.680	332.964	Total	1.379	274.483

There are many learned institutions at Havana, among others, the Royal University, with medical and law schools, and chairs of natural science; a Royal Seminary for girls, a school of sculpture and painting, a free mercantile school, a museum of natural history, and many other institutions of public charity and benevolence; but with all, education is but sadly attended, and it becomes necessary to go abroad to seek it.

The Patriotic or Economical Society, addresses itself to the education, agriculture, commerce, popular industry, and history of Cuba. It

has a public library, and publishes monthly papers and reports of the most valuable character.

There are thirteen printing offices in Havana, and twenty-six in Cuba; but the newspapers, which are sufficiently numerous, are under so severe a censorship, that they can be of little value. The number of merchants, in 1840, was one hundred and forty, and their operations are conducted without a single bank, but bonds and obligations circulate freely.

Matanzas is the second town of Cuba, and is distant fifty-two miles from Havana. We extract the following description of it:

"The first lines of the city were traced in October, 1693, by Senor Manzaneda, under whose government it was founded. To the city itself, was given that of San Carlos Alcazor de Matanzas—the last, that by which it is generally designated, signifying the slaughter of a battle field.

"The back country of Matanzas is rich in sugar and coffee estates, and after it was made a port of entry, it increased rapidly in trade and commerce. It now extends an arm across the San Juan river, into the adjacent Mangrove swamp, where an embryo city has sprung up, called the Pueblo Nuevo, and over the Yumuri, at the base of the Cumbre, another arm, named Versailles. Including these two suburbs, its population, in 1841, amounted to nineteen thousand one hundred and twenty-four, of whom ten thousand three hundred and four were whites, three thousand and forty-one free colored, and five thousand seven hundred and seventy-nine were slaves. The same year, four hundred and eighty vessels entered its port, of which three hundred and two were American, and five hundred and fifty-eight sailed from it, paying to the government, in tonnage and other duties, nearly a million of dollars. Its importations amounted to $1.995.311, of which $434.599 were for lumber from the United States, and its exportations to $4.374.780, of which $3.733.879 were for sugar, $351.733 for molasses, and $163.385 for coffee.

"The houses of Matanzas are mostly of stone, built, like those of Havana, in a very durable manner, with their windows as strongly barricaded with iron. But the number constructed of wood, the English, one continually hears along the Bay street, and the general cleanliness of the town, give it somewhat of a home air. It wants the bustle of Havana—nor has it as many sources of amusements; but to many, its very quiet forms an attraction, and the proximity of its beautiful passeo, from which a fine view of the whole bay is obtained, its purer air, and the romantic scenery in its vicinity, induce many to prefer it as a residence."

EXPORTS FROM MATANZAS FOR 1847.

	SUGAR. bxs.	COFFEE. lbs.	MOLASSES. hhds.
New York	45.904	185.227½	4.934
Boston	32.060½	82.450	8.375
Charleston and other Southern ports	7.550	117.475	5.648
Philadelphia	28.405½	.....	....
Rhode Island	3.073½	3.477½	5.114
Portland and other Northern ports	1.108½	17.850	10.501
England	68.085½	32.650	5.792
Cowes, I. W.	50.009	5.050	31
Gibraltar	1.697	83.400	.....
English Provinces	5.009½	125.175	5.998
Hamburg and Bremen	24.583	3.009.425	.....
The Baltic	16.322	350	.....
Holland	7.403	150	2.500
Belgium	14.285	.....	1.026
France	8.862	201.250	.....
Spain	18.459	176.952½	96
Italy	2.657	168.745	.....
The Adriatic	27.390	150	.....
Various Ports	761	32.800	.....
Havana	23.5[illegible]	749.260	.....
Total	387.171	3.405.777½	54.841

The following will show the number of vessels, the amount of tonnage, and the nation to which belonging, employed in exporting the above:

Ships & Barks.	*Brigs.*	*Schrs.*	*Polacres.*	*Lugger.*	*Tons.*
American 79	165	71	..	..	59.057½
English.....46	62	10	..	..	30.697½
Spanish 17	42	1	17	..	15.048½
French..... 4	..	..	..	..	1.287
German 19	15	..	..	..	11.530
Russian 2	2	..	..	..	1.210
Prussian..... 2	1	..	..	..	1.092
Swedish..... 3	3	..	..	..	2.410
Norwegian..... 1	2	..	..	..	756
Brazilian.....	2	..	..	1	850½
Total.....173	294	82	17	1	153.939

Puerto Principe is the capital of the Central Department of Cuba. It is one hundred and fifty-one leagues from Havana, and has a population of 13.817 whites, and about 10,000 slaves and colored. Its importations in 1841 were $186.825, and exports $74.595.

Trinidad is ninety miles from Havana, on the south coast. Population, 5.877 whites, 4.474 free colored, 2.417 slaves. Imports, 1841, $942.661. Exports, $1.157.571. *Sancti Spiritus* contains 5.296 whites, 2.722 colored, 1.466 slaves. *Santiago de Cuba* is two hundred and thirty leagues from Havana, on the south coast. Population 24.753. Importations in 1841, $2.631.421. Exportations, $5.993.631. On the southern coast of Cuba there are twenty-eight harbors and road-steads.

As a citizen of New Orleans, we cannot leave the island of Cuba without remarking upon the interesting relations it sustains to ours, more than to any other American city. We are in more constant and immediate intercourse, and it appears but a part of our own South, unnaturally and arbitrarily separated. In the progress and prospects of Cuba, it is but natural we cherish a deep interest. Alas! the time has not yet come for her regeneration! Even the Englishman, M'Culloch, can say:

"It is not easy to exaggerate the political importance of Cuba. Her size, geographical position, and the situation, great strength and admirable harbor of the Havana, render her, as it were, the mistress of the Gulf of Mexico. No wonder, therefore, that her possession and the nature of the government to which she is subjected, should be objects of intense interest to the United States, and also to Great Britain and other commercial nations. On the whole, it would seem to be most to the advantage of the commercial world, that Cuba should continue, as at present, dependent upon Spain, or that she should become independent. So long as she remains under Spain, there is but little risk of her natural capabilities being turned to the prejudice either of commerce in general, or of that of any particular state. But there is good reason to fear that it would be very much the reverse, were Cuba to come into the possession of the United States, or of any of the great European powers. Instead of ministering exclusively to the wants of a great and growing commerce, she might then be converted into an important military station, and be employed as a basis for warlike operations, that could not be carried on without great injury to the trade of the western world."

Slavery in Cuba, would appear a fixed institution, and no power has succeeded in arresting the progress of the slave trade with the coasts of Africa, which has steadily progressed, and is now in extraordinary prosperity. The demand for slave sugars, induced by their cheapness and the removal of duties abroad, enhances the value and the demand and supply of slaves. Many thousands are annually introduced. Dr.

Wurdeman tells us, that in 1843, two thousand Africans were congregated in and near Havana, for sale. Thousands are sold on the coast at the plantations. The slave laws are liberal in many respects, and the government prescribes their rest, diet, clothing, allowances, &c. They are not to be worked over nine hours a day, except in the grinding season, then sixteen hours. The slave may compel the master to sell him his freedom. The laws are not all, however, observed; though the monstrous stories which have been propagated by British philanthropists and praters, about the cruelty, oppression and tyranny exercised by the masters over the islands, are altogether malicious fabrications. Wurdeman, who traveled through the island, speaks of the condition of the slave as equal to that of the operatives of Europe, and to that of the negroes in many of our southern states.

Porto Rico is an island of about one hundred miles length and an average breadth of thirty-nine miles. It was discovered by Columbus, and the natives exterminated in 1509 by Spaniards from St. Domingo. The present population is 500,000, of which 50,000 only are slaves, and are governed by arbitrary Spanish laws. There are no manufactures, though gold, copper, iron, lead and coal are found in the island. About one-fifteenth of the area is in cultivation—in sugar, coffee, plantains, maize, rice, tobacco, cotton, etc. The seaports are San Juan, 30,000 inhabitants, and eleven others.

IMPORTS, EXPORTS AND DUTIES OF PORTO RICO, 1842 AND 1843.

	1842.	1843.
Imports	$5.757.403	$4.312.546
Exports	6.429.257	5.054.905
Duties	1.438.351	1.682.201

ARTICLES OF EXPORT, 1842 AND 1843.

	1842.		1843.	
Rum	hhds.	2.097	hhds.	1.157
Cotton	lbs.	882.064	lbs.	350.553
Sugar	lbs.	91.906.688	lbs.	71.039.913
Hides	lbs.	567.052	lbs.	509.777
Coffee	lbs.	12.878.953	lbs.	7.756.335
Cattle	head.	3.548	head.	2.595
Molasses	gal.	3.037.725	gal.	2.286.115
Tobacco	lbs.	6.693.953	lbs.	1.453.145

ARTICLES OF IMPORT.

Liquids		$212.700
Salt Provisions		68.853
Other Provisions		106.856
Spices		7.989
Fruits		29.251
Grain		614.208
Soap, Tallow, &c		121.824
Fish		301.452
Cottons	365.781	
Woolens	41.339	
Linens	296.789	862.483
Silks	86.421	
Perfumery	72.155	
Woods		176.685
Gold and Silver Coin		192.957
Other articles		727.240

The great excess of free population in Porto Rico, and of Europeans, distinguish it from all the other islands. The healthfulness of the climate, and extraordinary fertility of the soil, is one leading cause of the distinction. Much of the cultivation is effected by the whites, and it is remarked by Flinter:

"The necessaries and many of the luxuries of life, are enjoyed by the great majority of the inhabitants of Porto Rico. The Xivaros, a name applied to all the whites below the better classes, swing themselves to and fro in their hammocks all day long, smoking their cigars and scraping a guitar. A few coffee plants and plantain trees, a cow and a horse, an acre of land in corn or sweet potatoes, constitute the property of what would be denominated a comfortable Xivaro, who, mounted on his meagre and hard worked horse, with his long sword protruding from his basket, dressed in a broad brimmed straw hat, cotton jacket, clean shirt, and check pantaloons, sallies forth from his cabin to mass, to a cock fight, or to a dance, thinking himself the most happy and independent being in existence."

2. Dependencies of France.—The American empire, which once existed in such vast proportions under the flag of France, has dwindled almost into insignificance. With the exception of the diminutive islands of St. Pierre, Miquelon and Langley, near the coast of Newfoundland, and the strip of land on the coast of South America, entitled Guiana,* she has only remaining a few unimportant possessions in the West Indies, which we shall proceed to notice at length.

It was said of the colonial empire of France, by Mr. Burke, that it approached the perfection of administrative wisdom—a position combatted by McGreggor, who thinks that but for the very errors of this administration, Hayti would still have been retained, the richest of all the islands. The colonies were placed under the superintendance of a Council of Commerce in Paris, who received a fixed compensation for their services, and were endowed with extraordinary powers in regard to every thing of commercial and industrial interest. Navigation and trade were restricted to France. The taxes were light, and no import duties were levied, and but nominal export. The colonial system became thus one of great oppression upon the home government, and could only be supported by excessive taxation. Even the benefit expected by the mother country, from exclusive trade, proved illusory on account of the perfidy of colonial officers and hardihood of smugglers.

The terrible struggles which the political barometer indicates, for many years to come in France, before that nation shall pass under a sound, liberal and constitutional government, give an interest to any inquiries concerning her. The declaration of her revolutionary government, that the emancipation of slavery in the West India colonies,

* *French Guiana* is on the South American coast, two hundred and fifty miles long, and from one hundred to one hundred and ninety broad. Population, in 1837, 21,648, of which 16,592 are slaves. The capital is built on a small island called *Cayenne*, off the coast. "The sugar cane was introduced by the earliest colonists, and its culture has been greatly extended since 1829. There are from thirty to forty large establishments for the manufacture of sugar, and in all about fifty sugar mills, twenty-seven of which were, in 1836, worked by steam. The cultivation of coffee has decreased. The value of export and import trade in 1836, chiefly with France, exceeded 6,000,000 francs. Some French adventurers first settled at Cayenne in 1604, and with only a few interruptions from the Dutch and English, the French held that station and the rest of the colony till 1809; it was then taken possession of by English and Portuguese, and held by the latter till 1815, when, in pursuance of the treaty of Paris, it was restored to France."

will be one of the first measures of popular sovereignty, fearfully admonishes of the dangers of which the times are pregnant. We recur to Hayti, and the blood which the old revolution of France caused to be shed there, and the horrors of servile insurrection. Are these scenes again to be enacted? In any case, how will that magnificent island, now under its *free blacks*, compare with what it was under the institution of slavery; and where are those "British Isles," once such garden spots and sources of inexhaustible wealth, now that the recklessness of pseudo-philanthropy has released from labor, and thus practically enslaved *doubly* its operatives? But all of this we shall see fully anon.

Guadaloupe embraces two islands, divided by Salt river, which is navigable for small vessels. These islands are entitled Grande Terre and Bassee Terre, and are about five hundred and thirty-four square miles each. The harbor of Le Petit cal de Sac is well sheltered. The town of Guadaloupe extends along the shore, is well built, and has a population of 7.500. *Marie Galante*, *Saintes*, *Desirada* and *St. Martin* (French port), are dependencies of Guadaloupe. The first is a small island of sixty square miles area, whose capital is Grandbourg, a neat village; the second consists of rocky cliffs and hills, producing coffee and cotton in the northern districts of Marie Galante; the third is a small island, six miles from Guadaloupe. We shall consider St. Martin hereafter.

	Population.					*Population.*
Guadaloupe	26.168	free.	81.642	slaves.—	Total	107.110
Marie Galante	3.072	"	10.116	"	"	13.188
Saintes	570	"	569	"	"	1.139
Desirada	498	"	1.070	"	"	1.568
St. Martin (French)	544	"	2.925	"	"	3.869
	31.252		96.322			127.574

About one-fourth part only of these islands is in cultivation, producing sugar, molasses, rum, coffee, cotton, cocoa, cloves and tobacco. The colony has two delegates in Paris.

Martinique is of volcanic formation, and two-fifths of the surface has been reduced to cultivation. Population, 100.000; capital, St. Pierre, the largest and best built town in the Lesser Antilles, with a population of 20.000. It is well fortified. Fort Trinite', a town of 6.000 inhabitants, on the eastern coast, has a large trade. Area of Martinique, 244.348 English acres. The cultivation of sugar cane has progressed rapidly of late. Four or five hundred persons are engaged in navigation and the coasting trade. In 1826 there were employed in sugar making one hundred and eighty-three water mills, twenty-seven wind mills, and two hundred and eleven cattle mills. In 1836 were added thirteen *steam* mills. The number may now be supposed larger. The population in 1836 was, free, 37.955; slaves, 78.076; free whites estimated 9.000. From 1831 to 1836, 17.579 slaves were emancipated, and to 1842, 3.534 more. We have seen a higher estimate of population, viz.: 40.000 free and 117.592 slaves.

In 1831 a law was passed providing for the gradual emancipation of slavery throughout the French West Indies, which has been carried out in some degree, it being the intention of France to rely upon the beet root at home for her supply of sugar, should the worst happen

from this change. One would suppose she has already paid sufficiently for this *home sugar* monopoly. An account before us states the whole slave population of French West Indies at 229.708, and whites 77.115. The sugar crop is estimated at 147.652.022—only a little short of that of Louisiana the past year. This sugar pays a duty in France of 87.000.000. It remains to be seen, though it can easily be predicted, what shall become of all this sugar when emancipation falls like a blight upon the island.

OFFICIAL VALUE OF THE TRADE OF FRANCE WITH GUADALOUPE.

	IMPORTS.		EXPORTS.	
	Gen. Trade.	*Spec. Trade.*	*Gen. Trade.*	*Spec. Trade.*
1831.....francs	26.184.000	23.910.000	12.143.000	12.817.000
1832.....	23.367.000	24.328.000	22.908.000	22.491.000
1833.....	21.161.000	19.371.000	12.296.000	22.236.000
1834.....	24.556.000	18.390.000	14.385.000	14.386.000
1835.....	23.738.000	18.806.000	16.508.000	16.362.000
1836.....	23.641.000	18.687.000	20.204.000	19.945.000
1837.....	17.236.000	18.251.000	17.615.000	17.578.000
1838.....	21.502.000	17.046.000	15.193.000	15.018.000
1839.....	25.276.000	18.707.000	14.726.000	14.560.000
1840.....	20.333.000	20.769.000	16.807.000	16.431.000
1841.....	20.445.000	15.792.000	17.377.000	17.357.000

TRADE FRANCE AND GUADALOUPE, 1841.—EXPORTS.

	Gen. Trade.	*Special.*		*Gen. Trade.*	*Special.*
Sugar.....francs	18.886.000	14.292.000	Cocoa.....	15.000	14.000
Coffee.....	780.000	697.000	Sweetmeats.....	9.000	7.000
Dye & Cabinet			Cassia.....	——	——
woods.....	295.000	274.000	Annato.....	——	——
Rum & Taffia	182.000	177.000	Tobacco.....	——	——
Cotton Wool..	145.000	156.000	Iron Cables.....	4.000	2.000
Hides untan'd	54.000	84.000	Tortoise shells....	2.000	2.000
Copper.....	37.000	37.000	Other articles.....	56.000	50.000

IMPORTS GUADALOUPE, 1841.

Tissues of Cotton....francs	4.637.000	Salt Meat..... francs	247.000
" Flax, &c..	2.204.000	Goods for use.....	230.000
" Silk.....	335.000	Medicines.....	202.000
" Wool.....	424.000	Haberdashery.....	180.000
Hides, tanned.....	950.000	Paper, &c.....	164.000
Wines.....	859.000	Perfumery.....	161.000
Brandy, &c.....	153.000	Wood.....	144.000
Wheat meal.....	811.000	Blood.....	50.000
Metals, worked.....	630.000	Casks, empty.....	14.000
Butter.....	495.000	Jewelry.....	480.000
Cod Fish.....	454.000	Colors.....	123.000
Mules.....	424.000	Materials.....	152.000
Olive Oil.....	370.000	Other articles.....	1.982.000
Wax, &c.....	261.000		
Pottery, &c.....	261.000	Total.....	17.377.000

OFFICIAL TRADE OF FRANCE WITH MARTINIQUE.

	IMPORTS.		EXPORTS.	
	Gen. Trade.	*Spec. Trade.*	*Gen. Trade.*	*Spec. Trade.*
1831.....francs	18.992.000	17.454.000	12.638.000	13.649.000
1832.....	16.403.000	16.956.000	21.259.000	19.261.000
1833.....	14.762.000	13.270.000	12.438.000	12.399.000
1834.....	17.230.000	13.001.000	14.465.000	14.480.000
1835.....	16.244.000	13.181.000	16.710.000	16.369.000
1836.....	15.429.000	13.175.000	15.656.000	15.068.000

1837.....	13.428.000	12.513.000	17.308.000	17.283.000
1838.....	17.112.000	12.020.000	15.594.000	15.496.000
1839.....	17.277.000	14.104.000	16.507.000	16.366.000
1840.....	15.390.000	14.901.000	20.955.000	20.869.000
1841.....	16.664.000	14.545.000	18.330.000	18.315.000

TRADE FRANCE AND MARTINIQUE, 1841.

	Gen. Trade.	*Special.*		*Gen. Trade.*	*Special.*
Sugar.....francs	14.670.000..	13.000.000	Old Iron.....	43.000..	43.000
Coffee.....	430.000..	414.000	Tortoise shell	15.000..	12.000
Dye Woods.	339.000..	365.000	Sweetmeats.....	13.000..	12.000
Rum & Taffia	284.000..	214.000	Gold sweepings...	9.000..	19.000
Cassia.....	221.000..	4.000	Cotton Wool.....	——..	——
Vanilla.....	194.000..	25.000	Brass, raw.....	——..	——
Hides.....	156.000..	147.000	Tin.....	1.000..	1.000
Cocoa.....	128.000..	93.000	Lead.....	1.000..	1.000
Copper.....	72.000..	72.000	Other articles.....	88.000.	123.000

IMPORTS MARTINIQUE, 1841.

Tissues of Cotton....francs	4.302.000	Butter.....	387.000
" Flax	2.502.000	Perfumery	326.000
" Wool.....	448.000	Cod Fish.....	281.000
" Silk.....	425.000	Haberdashery.....	268.000
Wines.....	1.139.000	Mules	229.000
Hides.....	1.004.000	Medicines.....	185.000
Olive Oil.....	680.000	Goods	179.000
Salt Meat	540.000	Paper, &c.	152.000
Pottery, &c.....	495.000	Wood	79.000
Jewelry, &c.....	455.000	Soap	63.000
Metal works.....	451.000	Thread.....	54.000
Flour.....	500.000	Materials	116.000
Candles.....	417.000	Other articles.....	2.638.000

3. DEPENDENCIES OF GREAT BRITAIN.—The extraordinary colonial empire, extending over all the world, which Britain has maintained within the last three centuries, is an object of admiration, however contemplated. Even the errors of her policy, co-operated by almost universal adoption among other nations, and so much reprobated by enlightened economists of the present day, are lost sight of in the magnitude of the results. Her aim has been *extension* and POWER, and "maritime supremacy" and "commerce." She has regarded the surest means of obtaining and perpetuating these. Although despoiled of her thirteen colonies, and of the immense territories of the American Union, which her oppressions drove into successful revolt, she has still upon the continent and approximate inlands, as much of territory remaining as the whole United States, supposing we come out of this Mexican war with our old boundaries. With even this, however, her craving appetite for empire is ill appeased.

The possession of colonies, whatever might have been the fancies of other times, or even the results, is never likely again, in the notions of liberty, independence, and free commerce, universally afloat, to be of much advantage to the parent country. They will not, it is hardly supposable, in the future, submit to arbitrary restrictions and irresponsible power, exercised from abroad. The colonist is a free man in his new, as much as in his old home. He loses no right. If anything, his independent step should attach other, and even higher, rights and privileges. His connection with the home government is nothing, save

only so far as it is his will to be connected. If protection be required, their allegiance is due, to that extent, and no more. He can elect at pleasure to change his government, whose only force exists of right in sufferance. In view of these truths, how remarkable and atrocious, then, must appear those arbitrary systems of colonial empire which the nations of the old world have so arrogantly set up!

An able English writer has expressed these opinions in a manner which defies contradiction, and we extract with great pleasure:

"We hope it will not be supposed, from any thing now stated, that we consider the foundation of colonial establishment, as generally speaking, inexpedient—we entertain no such opinion. It is not to the establishment of colonies, provided they be placed in advantageous situations, but to the trammels that have been laid upon their industry and the interference exercised by the mother countries, in their domestic concerns, that we object. Every individual ought to have full liberty to leave his native country, and occasions very frequently occur, when governments may advantageously interfere to settle emigrants in foreign countries; and when the soundest policy dictates the propriety of their supporting and protecting them until they are in a situation to support and protect themselves. There can be no question whatever, that Europe has been prodigiously benefited by the colonization of America. The colonists carried the arts, the sciences, the language, and the religion of the most civilized communities of the old world, to regions of vast extent, and great natural facilities, occupied only by a few miserable savages. The empire of civilization has, in consequence, been immeasurably extended, and while the experience afforded by the use and progress of communities, placed under such novel circumstances, has served to elucidate and establish many most important and fundamental principles in government and legislation, Europe has been enriched by the vast variety of new products America has afforded to stimulate the inventive powers of genius, and to reward the patient hand of industry.

"But whatever may have been the advantages hitherto derived from the colonization of America, they are trifling, compared to what they would have been, had the European powers left the colonists at liberty to avail themselves of all the advantages of their situations, and avoided encumbering themselves with the government of extensive territories 3000 miles distant. Fortunately, however, a new era has at length begun—*novus saeclorum nascitur ordo!* The monopoly of the trade of America is destroyed, and her independence achieved. From Canada to Cape Horn, every port is ready to receive adventurers from Europe: and a boundless field has, in consequence, been opened for the reception of our surplus population, and for the advantageous employment of European arts, capital and skill. The few remains of the old colonial system which still exist, and which are principally to be found in the mercantile policy of this country and France, cannot be of long duration. Their mischievous operation is no longer doubtful, and they will disappear according as the knowledge of sound commercial principles is more generally diffused."—*M'Culloch on Colonies*, 1 *Com. Dic.* 413.

Antigua, a fertile island, forty miles north of Guadaloupe, twenty-five northeast of Montserrat, and thirty south of Burmuda, is eighteen miles in length and twelve in breadth, covering an area of one hundred and seven square miles. Its form is of an irregular oval, shore high and rocky, indented by bays and harbors. Except to the southwest, the approach to the island is very dangerous. Sugar plantations are scattered over more than one-half of it, and provisions are raised on the remainder. It has several good harbors, the best of which is English harbor, deep enough to admit the largest ships. A narrow isthmus divides it from Falmouth Bay, at the bottom of which lies a very thriving place called after the bay. St. Johns is the capital of the island.

Columbus discovered this island in 1493, and named it after a church in Seville. In 1666 it was taken by the French, in whose possession

it did not long remain. The climate of Antigua is healthy. From 1817 to 1836, the average annual mortality was not more than half that of the West Indies generally. During the same period, the births among the slave population more than compensated, by seven hundred, the decrease by deaths. In Louisiana, far different results are apparent.

The products of the island are sugar, molasses, rum, and small quantities of arrow root and tobacco.

QUANTITIES SHIPPED IN 1836.

Sugar	15.739.180 lbs.
Molasses	522.050 gallons.
Rum	11.362 "
Arrow root	25.290 lbs.
Tobacco	21.000 "

The rum is of excellent quality. Value of exports in 1836, £175.808; imports, £191.817. Sugar has for a long time been the staple production of the island. The cane is said to have been introduced by Col. Codrington, who settled on the island in 1674. The quality was at first black, harsh and coarse, but these obstacles were at length overcome, and a grade of sugar produced equal to any shipped to the European markets.

Mr. Coleridge thus describes the island as approached from the harbor of St. Johns:

"The heart of the island is verdant with an abundant pasturage of grassy down, and the numerous houses of the planters, embosomed in trees, have more of the appearance of country mansions in England than almost any other in the West Indies. The shores are indented in every direction with creeks, and bays, and coves—some of them running into the center of the plantations like canals—some swelling into estuaries, and others forming spacious harbors. Beyond these, an infinite variety of islands and islets stud the bosom of the blue sea, and stand out, like so many advanced posts of defense, against the invading waves. They are of all shapes and sizes, and are given up to the rearing of provisions and the maintenance of a great number of cattle. From the same hill (Monk's Hill), when the western sky is clear, Guadaloupe, Montserrat, Nevis and St. Kitts, may all be distinguished by the naked eye."

QUANTITY AND VALUE OF VARIOUS ARTICLES OF MERCHANDISE EXPORTED FROM ANTIGUA DURING THE YEAR 1832.

Description of Goods.	Quantity.	Value in sterling money.
Arrow root ..... lbs.	8.354	£ 342
Coffee, colonial ..... lbs.	31.284	781
Copper, old ..... lbs.	25.066	999
Corn, viz., Wheat Flour ..... bbls.	7	14
Dye and hard woods, colonial ..... tons.	6	20
Fruits ..... value.	———	2
Hides ..... number.	312	107
Iron and Steel manufacture, British ..... value.	———	25
Lime Juice ..... gallons.	90	3
Linens, entered by the yard, Br. ..... yards.	140	4
Molasses ..... gallons.	678.500	26.652
Spirits, Rum ..... gallons.	115.420	7.023
" Shrub ..... gallons.	390	32
Succades ..... value.	———	8
Sugar ..... lbs.	17.165.610	126.403
Tobacco ..... lbs.	400	4
Tortoise Shell ..... lbs.	56	84

Wines of all sorts	gallons.	265	77
Wood	value.	———	5
Miscellaneous articles	value.	———	6.639
Total			£169.244

Barbadoes—One of the lesser Antilles and the most ancient of British colonies, is about one hundred miles east from St. Vincent. It is twenty miles long and, in the widest part, about fifteen broad. As compared with other islands, the surface is low. There are no traces of volcanic action in Barbadoes,* though, at intervals of several years, there are tremendous hurricanes exceedingly destructive of life and property.

It is not known when Barbadoes was first discovered. Previously to 1600, it was not noticed on the charts of European navigators. By no hostile force has Barbadoes ever been captured. It is said to have been first visited by the Portuguese, who named it Los Barbados, from the number of fig trees—whose branches were likened to luxurious beards.

Barbadoes is surrounded by coral shoals and reefs. The number of sugar estates in this island is five hundred—worked, with the exception of one steam mill, entirely by wind. The population, in 1844, numbered 123,000—two-thirds black. There are five newspapers published at Bridgeton, and a paper was established as early as 1731. In 1842 there were forty-four merchant vessels, and a hundred and eighteen transient traders, doing business regularly with the island. Imports, 1842, from Britain, £459,180; foreign and colonial, £50,936. One-sixth of the imports are cod-fish, grain and flour, chiefly from the United States and British North America. The exports are sugar, rum, molasses, arrow root, aloes, cotton, ginger, cocoanuts, logwood, hides, tamarinds, cocoa, coffee, &c. Indigo, tobacco and fustic, were formerly grown. The export of cotton is only about three hundred bales. This is the only English island where the export of sugar has not diminished since emancipation.

EXPORTS OF BARBADOES, 1831–43.

	SUGAR. cwt.	RUM. gallons.	COCOA. lbs.	MOLASSES. cwt.	COFFEE. lbs.
1831	322.779	20.730	2.554	15.562	2.420
1832	266.464	5.740	2.468	7.081	158.198
1833	384.971	696	8.403	47.246	48.371
1834	394.527	2.170	72	55.525	77.868
1835	344.689	1.798	77	58.125	57.825
1836	373.428	738	4	47.558	33.523
1837	445.713	914	7.115	70.293	24.619
1838	473.587	455	2.652	98.683	37.569
1839	395.109	502	6	76.444	20.884
1840	207.484	778	31.016	35.959	74.167
1841	257.108	250		25.475	1.513
1842	312.563	158	35.054	53.003	19.088
1843	349.048	460	18.476	68.975	12.837

North of *Antigua* is situated the unimportant island of *Burmuda*, whose population, chiefly black and not exceeding four hundred, occu-

* The base of the island being of calcareous rock, formed of madrepores and other marine concretions, is supposed, like many of the surrounding isles, to be of volcanic origin.

pies a territory fifteen miles in length and eight wide. Corn, cotton, pepper, tobacco, &c., are produced abundantly, but no sugar. The government is proprietary.

Anguilla, the most northerly of the Carribean islands—named from its resemblance to a snake. Length twenty-five to thirty miles, breadth six miles; population three thousand, two thousand four hundred being black. The island has only been partially cultivated, and the products are not numerous.

Dominica is in surface 186,436 acres, and sustains a population of 18.830—14.384 being black. The soil is light and more fitted for coffee than sugar. Cabinet woods abound, and good fisheries. The average export of sugar, in 1836, 1837 and 1838, was about 35,000 cwt.; of coffee 240.000lbs.; rum 10.000 gallons: value of exports, in 1836, £78.282; imports £68,077. The island was discovered by Columbus in 1493; ceded to England by France in 1763; retaken by the French in 1778, and restored at the peace of 1783.

Grenada—Area 80.000 acres; population in 1836, whites and free colored races, 4220, apprenticed laborers 18,316. The climate is unhealthy, though the soil is very prolific. The imports into Britain from Grenada were, in 1838:

Sugar, raw	156.798 cwts.
Rum	234.991 galls.
Molasses	18.359 cwts.
Coffee	21.647 lbs.
Cotton	109.945 "
Cocoa	426.626 "
Arrow Root	3.630 "

St. George, the capital, has a population of 2.780. The island was colonized by the French about 1650; was afterward taken by Britain; retaken; and finally restored. Lieut. Col. Capadose, who visited the colony a few years ago, remarks: "Grenada has flourished, but its commerce has declined; estates once valuable have been sold at a ruinous loss to the owners; and it is melancholy to see the empty stores and warehouses on the quay: why this is, one more skilled in commercial statistics must determine. I can but hope brighter days are to come, when the sun of prosperity will again shine on the lovely mountains and valleys of Grenada, and make it as rich in civilization and trade as it is in the beauties of nature; when it will be estimated, not for the Italian softness of its scenery, but regarded as a pearl of great price among the Antilles."*

Montserrat is a small island dependency of Antigua, whose area is but 30.000 acres and population 7.600, mostly blacks. The country is highly mountainous. The health is favorable. Exports, sugar, 1839, 13.443 cwts.; and 29.460 galls rum. Value of exports and imports £9.500 each. It was originally colonized by the English.

Nevis.—Population 11.500; length 6½ miles, breadth about the same. The inhabitants find employ chiefly in the cane culture and preparation of rum. In 1839, 36.466 cwts. sugar, and 39.252 gallons rum, were exported to England. Exports, £12.203; imports, £27.183.

St. Christopher.—The population in 1844 was 23.177. The whole

* Sixteen years in West Indies, vol. i, p. 226, London, 1845.

area is 43.720 acres, one-half being unfit for cultivation. Sugar is chiefly raised, and the export of the island in 1838 was 91.765 cwts.; in 1843, 6.851 hhds. The whole exports and imports of 1836, £244.047. It was ceded to the English at the treaty of Utrecht in 1713. Capadose remarks: "The inhabitants of St. Christopher may well boast of their island beauties; and in good truth, if the loveliness of nature can produce happiness, they are blessed indeed."

St. Lucia.—By the last census it contains 13.448 blacks, and 16.017 inhabitants. The tables of mortality almost prove it the graveyard of the West Indies. The harbor of Carenage is a splendid and capacious one. The exports in 1835 were, sugar, 50.215 cwt.; rum, 14.051 galls.; molasses, 11.029 cwt.; coffee, 84.000 lbs. It was ceded to France in 1763, but afterwards retaken by England.

St. Vincent.—Area 85.000 acres; population 27.248 in 1844, of which 22.997 were blacks. One-third of the surface is in cultivation. Exports, in 1841, 110.205 cwts. sugar; 88,999 gallons rum, &c. The island, like others of the West Indies, has several times changed hands between France and England.

Tobago.—The interior lands have not been brought into cultivation, but are still forests. The island was colonized, first by the Dutch, and then by the Courlanders. It then changed hands twice between France and England. It is productive in every plant that grows in the Antilles. "Throughout the whole island there is but little social intercourse, as the inhabitants are scattered, and the roads, the greater part of the year, in such a state as precludes visiting. But most of the estates are advantageously situated, and the scenery around them picturesque and attractive. The variety of its trees, shrubs, flowers and vegetables, render it interesting to the botanist."

Virgin Isles.—These include the petty islands of Anegada, Tartola and Virgin Gorda. From Capadose's Travels, we extract the following sketch of Tartola, the most important of the group: "It is different in appearance from any of the other colonies, being an island of mountains; on the summits of several are large table-lands well cultivated. The people live secluded lives, cultivating their own fruits and vegetables; feeding a few sheep and poultry; fishing or catching the wild ducks, which abound in all the mountain lakes on the island. I doubt whether this little island will ever rise above its present excellence; it is not adapted for colonization, and can be of but little value unless for a fortification."

Honduras and Guaiana are included in the British West Indies, though not *islands*. *Honduras*, or Balize, is on the east coast of Central America. The climate is moist but healthy. The forests abound with the most valuable woods, mahogany, logwood, &c., the main products of the colony. The mahogany is a majestic tree, arriving at maturity in two hundred years! The trees are rafted down the rivers. Three logs have been sold as high in London as £3.000, according to M'Culloch, the product of one tree! The logwood grows abundant in high grounds. In 1836, 28.313 tons shipping arrived and 29.493 tons departed. The only town is *Balize*, at the mouth of the Balize river, which has about five hundred houses. Great Britain received possession from Spain in 1670, but there were afterwards several con-

tests about it. The colony is important, from its situation between Yucatan and Guatemala on the North American coast, for military operations in this region. Its area is 16,400 square miles; 175 miles in length, and 110 in width. The British at one time even claimed the east shore of Yucatan, but surrendered the pretension in 1763. Yucatan still asserts confidently her rights *to the whole of Balize to the Mosquito Shore.* Population of Balize in 1845, 399 whites; 10.410 colored. Nothing is said to be requisite but the application of labor and capital to render it a most productive sugar country; and many other products exclusive of mahogany might be drawn from its soil and its forests. Laborers could be induced from Yucatan.

Guaiana.—The *British portion* is most northward on the South American coast, and, with a shore of four hundred miles, includes about 76.000 miles of territory. Guaiana is favorable for every tropical product. The inhabitants are aborigines, Dutch, English, Europeans, Africans, and are in number 82.924 negroes, 9.076 colored, 5.000 whites. The three departments are *Demerara, Essequibo and Berbice,* whose chief towns are Georgetown and New Amsterdam. England contested for a long time the possession of Guaiana with the Dutch, but finally seized upon it in 1803. Population in 1843, 120.000; produce same year:

Sugar	54.674.009 lbs.	Rum	147.830 galls
Molasses	2.020.354 galls.	Coffee	1.924.000 lbs.

Since the *emancipation,* many estates have been abandoned. The governor, however, in his address of 1843, says: "A steady augmentation of population, &c., cannot fail to raise this magnificent colony to that high rank among the dependencies of the British crown, to which its extent, capabilities and fertility give it so just and natural a claim."*

* The *Mosquito Territory,* for various reasons, and chiefly the alledged British interference in its policy and claims, has grown of sufficient importance to require an elaborate note. It extends westward from Spanish Honduras to the sea, with a most extensive coast. Honduras, asserting its independence, has maintained continual hostilities with Guatemala. The Spanish, it is asserted by McGreggor, never subjugated or occupied Mosquito, though the British had long ago a fort and trading huts, which they were forced by Spain to abandon. The Mosquito Indians are spoken of in very high terms: "Their love of liberty, added to their natural bravery, impelled them to maintain, in sovereign independency, the possession of their mountains, valleys, woods, lakes and rivers, against the superior arms and arts of Spain." They have readily allied themselves with the English and look to them for protection. During the war in 1749, so important was considered the possession of the Mosquito Coast, that the British at once established a garrison there. The settlers, in hopes of a province being set up by the crown, began to cultivate the soil extensively. Eight of the settlers are said to have bought a large tract of land, seventy miles long and thirty broad. A system of government was established over them by the home government. These steps were regarded with jealousy by the Spaniards, and the two nations successively won and lost the mastery of the territory. In 1786, on the discussion of claims, the British ministry determined upon a surrender to the crown of Spain. There is sufficient proof that several parts of Mosquito are decidedly more salubrious than any other West India settlements. The supplies of cabinet woods of every sort are inexhaustible. Sugar, coffee, cotton, tobacco and indigo, could be advantageously cultivated. This is the British account of the matter.

The Mosquito Territory is considered by McGreggor as "independent and under the protection and sovereignty of England;" which is much the same as to say, is an English possession. The present George, "king of the Mosquito Shore and

EXPORTS OF GUAIANA IN TEN YEARS.

YEARS.	SUGAR. hhds.	RUM. punch.	MOLASSES. hhds.	COFFEE. lbs.	COTTON. bales.
1834...	55.277	19.517	33.413	2.532.000	3.376
1835...	67.248	27.147	27.160	3.278.930	2.319
1836...	71.280	24.626	38.088	4.801.350	3.196
1837...	62.520	17.602	31.429	4.066.950	2.510
1838...	54.535	18.431	25.506	4.186.790	1.083
1839...	38.444	16.071	12.134	2.003.250	1.364
1840...	40.656	21.199	15.999	3.357.300	231
1841...	34.199	11.118	16.179	1.088.670	170
1842...	36.211	11.631	17.894	2.177.120	40
1843...	35.938	8.296	24.957	1.428.100	24
1844...	38.999	11.706	21.677	1.490.737	0

Bahama.—This group consists of several hundred islands, extending south-east six hundred miles between Florida and Hayti. They are of coral formation, scantily covered with soil, and mostly uninhabited. *New Providence*, from its harbor, is the most important. It is the seat of Government, and differs little, in general appearance, from the other islands. *Nassau* is the capital. The whole area of the islands is stated at 5.424 miles. Population in 1837, 19.943; two-thirds being black. The inhabitants are residents or wreckers. The latter are very numerous, and are daring navigators, who find constant employ from the dangerous keys, shoals and breakers by which they are surrounded. Number employed in agriculture, 3.590. Articles of product—corn, potatoes, yams, peas, beans, pine apples, cotton, ochre, cassada, pumpkins, arrow root, oranges, limes, lemons. Dye woods are largely exported, and vast quantities of salt. Exports, in 1834, £92.802; imports, £142.021. The Bahamas were settled by the British in 1629. They were driven out by the Spaniards, who in turn were expelled. The French and Spaniards, combined, took possession in 1703. From that period till the cession to Britain in 1783, the islands were a famous rendezvous for pirates.

Burmuda.—This is a group of three hundred and fifty small islands on the Atlantic, east of South Carolina. The population is 8.000, of whom half are black. *Hamilton* is the capital. The exports are arrow root, potatoes, onions, palmetto and straw hats. They have one hundred vessels engaged in the West India carrying trade. About one thousand barrels of oil are taken annually on the coasts.

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS FOR THE YEAR ENDING JANUARY, 1847.

	Imports.	*Exports.*
From Great Britain	£52.079	2.943
" North America	3.199	207

nation," was educated, we believe, in England, and crowned May, 1845. The British government keep up a resident agency in the country.

Honduras and Mosquito, together, are three hundred and ninety-nine miles long and one hundred and fifty wide; area, 48.500 square miles. An able historical and descriptive sketch has been written by Mr. Roberts. On a review of the whole, it is observed by McGreggor, "it is evident that the Mosquito Territory is a most important region of America." British subjects have settled in various parts. Mr. Walker, the resident agent, employs much of his time in endeavoring to improve the *morale* and condition of the creoles. An ensign and standard for the nation, were sent out to them from England. It would be well for the United States, whose policy is non-interference by Europeans on the American continent, to have a vigilant eye to the movements on the Mosquito Coast.

From British West Indies	3.881	7.024
" United States	65.762	5.107
" Foreign states	9.267	3.309
	£134.189	£18.592

Number of vessels entered in 1846, one hundred and ninety-four, of 25.686 tonnage inward, and one hundred and ninety-six, of 25.565 tonnage outward; 1847, one hundred and sixty-eight vessels, 19.962 tons inward, one hundred and sixty-six, 19.625 tons outward.

STAPLE PRODUCTIONS.

	1846.	1847.
Arrow root	£8.084	4.115
Onions	1.782	1.637
Potatoes	1.036	1.845
Oil	129	

The exports of arrow root and potatoes have been increasing very rapidly of late years.

Trinidad.—In the immediate vicinity of Columbia, and the most distant of all the islands from the United States, is *Trinidad*, which, for commercial importance, is second only to Jamaica. Area about 2000 square miles. The interior is uncultivated and almost unexplored. The soil is in general fertile, and is supposed sufficient to supply all England with sugar. One-thirtieth of the surface only is capable of cultivation. In 1838 there were 184 sugar estates, with an invested capital of £2.000.000 sterling. A deficiency of labor has long been a serious drawback to the estates. Cocoa is extensively cultivated; asphaltum is found abundantly. The progress of the island has been chiefly since 1783. It has been held by the French and Spaniards as well as by the English. The population of Trinidad is stated as low as 39.000, and as high as 70.000, by different writers. There were, in 1840, 180 sugar estates, 104 distilleries on estates, 21.710 acres in cane, 6.910 acres in cocoa, 1.095 in coffee, 6.313 in provisions, and 7.237 in pastures.

Jamaica.—This most important of all the British islands, lies about one hundred miles south of Cuba, has an area of 6.250 square miles, and a population of 380.000, of whom, in 1835, 311.000 were blacks. Whilst the yellow fever rages on the low grounds, the elevated regions enjoy perfect health. The island is not generally fertile, but requires much culture. Indigo, coffee and cocoa, formerly much cultivated, have been given up. Every variety of tropical fruit and the most valuable dye and cabinet woods flourish. The European population are English, Irish, Scotch, French, German and Portuguese. But little of the island remains in the hands of the crown to be granted. The largest estates are about 1200 acres, but it is impossible to procure a force to work them, as the freed negroes will only work a few hours each day, and a few days each week. Labor and rent are the chief subjects of agitation. The coffee estates have suffered less by emancipation, as Europeans cultivate them to an extent. But we shall refer to these things bye and bye.

Jamaica was settled by the Spaniards in 1503, and remained with them till its conquest by England in 1655. In 1772 the exports were 11.000 hhds. sugar; in 1774, 78.000. The island suffered from the

American war. The insurrection in St. Domingo stimulated the sugar production of Jamaica, which, in 1802, reached 143.000 hhds. The same may be said of coffee, which from 60.000 pounds in 1752, reached 19.311.000 in 1832. St. Jago is the seat of government, but Kingston the largest town.

The imports in Jamaica in 1845 required 125.421 tonnage, being 12.000 tons greater than the previous year. The following are the imports of 1843 and 1844:

TABLE OF IMPORTS TO JAMAICA.

	1844.	1843.
Flour—98.779 bbls., 2.802 half bbls.	66.239 bbls., 1.665 half bbls.
Corn Meal—26 puns., 22.156 bbls.	3 puncheons, 9.748 bbls.
Rice—1.369 trs., 235 half trs., 16.122 bags.	1.756 trs., 486 half trs., 9.069 bags.
Fish, Cod—3.897 hhds., 9.488 trs., 18.960 bxs.	5.421 hhds., 7.952 trs., 15.932 bxs.
Haddock—79 casks.	135 casks.
Mackerel—8.912 bbls.	23.643 bbls.
Alewives—4.696 bbls.	2.926 bbls.
Herrings—3.803 bbls.	2.853 bbls.
Salmon—281 tierces, 1.045 bbls.	408 tierces, 1.440 bbls.
Oil—1.928 casks.	2.647 casks.
Bread—16.305 bbls.	13.376 bbls., 216 half bbls.
Butter—15.441 firkins, 2.168 kegs.	14.782 firkins, 2.410 kegs.
Lard—6.001 firkins, 2.640 kegs.	10.214 firkins, 1.574 kegs.
Candles—15.366 bxs., 310 half bxs.	25.041 boxes.
Soap—46.323 bxs.	33.566 boxes.
Pork—24.629 bbls., 2.215 half bbls.	13.489 bbls., 1.039 half bbls.
Beef—1.312 bbls., 2.500 half bbls.	821 bbls., 1.170 half bbls.
Tongues—886 half bbls., 401 firkins.	1.519 half bbls., 256 firkins.
Brandy—3 pipes, 551 hhds.	401 hhds.
Wine—243 pipes, 469 hhds., 809 qr. casks.	112 pipes, 488 hhds., 1.362 qr. cks.
Tobacco—98 hhds.	54 hhds.
Corn—45.615 bags.	34.162 bags.
Salt—11 hhds., 883 tierces.	30 hhds., 1.032 tierces.
Lumber, P. P.—1.260.016 feet.	555.000 feet.
W. P.—2.044.581 feet.	2.170.488 feet.
Staves, R. O.—73.410.	350.963
W. O.—65.100.	212.740
Wood Hoops—213.170.	323.910
Shingles, Cedar—1.773.410.	2.228.090
Cypress—1.334.070.	1.182.670

SUGAR CROPS OF JAMAICA FROM 1790 TO 1846.

1790..... 91.131 hhds.	1809.....114.630 hhds.	1828.....101.575 hhds.
1791..... 91.051	1810.....112.208	1829..... 97.893
1792..... 91.021	1811.....138.292	1830.....100.205
1793..... 82.136	1812.....113.173	1831..... 94.381
1794..... 97.124	1813.....109.158	1832..... 98.686
1795..... 95.372	1814.....104.558	1833..... 85.101
1796..... 96.460	1815.....127.209	1834..... 84.756
1797..... 85.109	1816.....100.382	1835..... 77.970
1798..... 95.858	1817.....123.766	1836..... 67.094
1799.....110.646	1818.....121.753	1837..... 61.505
1800.....105.584	1819.....116.382	1838..... 69.613
1801.....136.036	1820.....122.922	1839..... 49.243
1802.....140.113	1821.....119.560	1840..... 33.066
1803.....115.496	1822..... 94.511	1841..... 34.491
1804.....112.163	1823.....101.271	1842..... 50.295
1805.....152.352	1824.....106.009	1843..... 44.169
1806.....146.601	1825..... 72.090	1844..... 34.444
1807.....135.203	1826.....106.712	1845..... 47.926
1808.....132.333	1827..... 87.399	

From a letter of Dr. Binns to Lord Normanby, we learn that Jamaica is exposed to an easy conquest by a foreign power. Dr. Binns says: "With a single steamer, carrying one thousand men and one long gun, incalculable mischief might be done ere the queen's troops could be got under arms, or the militia assembled. But *with five thousand men, the island, in spite of the most gallant defense, must surrender.*"

We have failed in obtaining any very late tables showing the gross amount of the trade of all the British West Indies with the rest of the world. The reader, however, under the head of each of the islands, will have found much to guide him in making a correct estimate. The following comprises the trade of the islands with the mother country during twenty years; and we shall see, hereafter, that the depreciation which is annually shown, has continued down to the present day:

TRADE OF GREAT BRITAIN AND COLONIES.

	IMPORTS FROM ISLS. Official val. £s.	EXPTS. TO ISLS. in £s.	DECLARED VAL. Exports in £s.		IMS. FROM ISLANDS. Official val. in £s.	EXP. TO ISLS. in £s.	DEC. VALUE. Exports.
1814	9 022.309	6.222.138	7.019.938	1825	7.932.829	4.997.270	3.866.834
1815	9.903.260	7 196.081	7.218.057	1826	8 420.454	4.047.634	3.199.265
1816	7.847.895	4.852 228	4 537.056	1827	8.380.833	5.017.375	3.683.222
1817	8.326.926	7.015.591	5.800.199	1828	9.496.950	4.461.071	3.289.704
1818	8.608.790	5.989.707	6.021.627	1829	9.087.923	5.521.256	3.612.085
1819	8.188.539	4.692.414	4.841.753	1830	8.599.100	5.040.677	2 838.148
1820	8.353.706	4.561.350	4.157.761	1831	8.448 839	3.988.266	2.581.949
1821	3.667.477	5.311.347	4.320.581	1832	8.168.668	4.100.426	2.439.807
1822	8.019.765	4.370.178	3.439.818	1833	8.008.248	4.704.180	2.597.591
1823	8.425.276	5.906.863	3 676 780	1834	5.410.113	4.818.646	2.680.022
1824	9.065.546	5.167.931	3.827.489				

EXPORTS FROM UNITED KINGDOM TO BRITISH WEST INDIES.

1840	£3.574.970	1844	£2.452.400
1841	2.504.004	1845	2.789.211
1842	2.591.425	1846-7	2.505.695
1843	2.882.441		

TRADE BRITISH WEST INDIES AND UNITED STATES.

EXPORTS U. STATES.		IMPORTS U. STATES.	
Fish oil and Candles	$33.699	Bullion and specie	$345.294
Staves, &c	312.342	Coffee, Cocoa, &c	6.459
Masts and Naval Stores	3.916	Copper and Brass	42.430
Provisions and Spirits	772.408	Dye-Wood	19.154
Horses and Mules	215.902	Mahogany	4.049
Sheep	14.699	Wines, &c	4.785
Bread Stuffs	2.194.052	Molasses	2.917
Rice	159.739	Sugar	22.206
Tobacco	36.885	Spices	38.699
Gold and Silver Coin	6.100	Coal	765
Manufactures	287.782	Salt	99.693
Others	76.724	Manufactures	16.497
		Sundries	84.958
Domestic Exports	$4.114.218		
Foreign	21.828	Total	$687.906
Total	$4.136.046		

VESSELS OWNED IN BRITISH COLONIES, 1844.

	VESSELS.	TONNAGE.	CREWS.		VESSELS.	TONNAGE.	CREWS.
Antigua	55	833	220	Montserrat	4	100	19
Bahamas	140	3.252	686	Nevis	11	178	45
Barbados	37	1.640	305	St. Kitts	35	546	114

Berbice	18	854	89	St. Lucia	19	913	132
Bermuda	54	3.623	323	St. Vincent	27	1.164	180
Demerara	54	2.352	250	Tobago	7	189	46
Dominica	14	502	85	Tartola	48	278	127
Grenada	48	812	198	Trinidad	61	1.832	378
Jamaica	116	4.363	63[illegible]				
				Total	7.304	592.839	40.659

The most obvious distinction which exists between the British and other West Indies, is that which grows out of the relationship of its white and colored population, and the experiment some years in progress of cultivating the products of the tropics by *free negro labor*. This reflection opens to us the whole subject of EMANCIPATION, of which the world has heard so much, and in the discussion of which we shall learn more of the true condition of the islands than can be gleaned from any of our previous facts and statistics. We crave the reader's undivided attention.

Slavery is an institution as old as society itself. In the most glorious eras of letters and liberty, it was at its height. We find it throughout all the dark ages. In the middle of the nineteenth century, in the full blaze of Christianity, science and civilization, its progress is unchecked and even accelerated. Every attempt at suppression has signally failed. Abolition has been "as sounding brass." The natural increase of slaves falls little short, in the United States, of 100.000 per annum, and it is not venturing too much to assert, that, for every slave liberated by one nation, another has been imported by its neighbor from the coast of Africa. The imports into Spanish colonies, Brazil, South America, &c., are many thousands annually. The supply is thus kept equal to the demand, and increases with it. There are perhaps as many slaves in the world, as the peculiar products which they are engaged in raising, and for which they only seem to be fitted, require. Emancipation is the measure of policy, when that number is temporarily too large. It is less heartless than the Spartan's extermination of his *helots*, but still mercenary, in that it is enjoying the laborer's prime and dismissing him to want when he ceases to be valuable. Even were the negro entitled to his freedom, man is selfish and will not give it to him, if it involves his pecuniary loss. Disregarding individual exceptions, the world has exhibited, as yet, no such benevolence.

It is doubtful whether men have not lost more than they have gained by abstract speculations upon liberty. The liberty of the uncivilized and barbarous man, is that of a wild beast. In the delirious excesses of unrestrained, unlimited liberty, men have proved themselves monsters and shocked high heaven with their atrocities. Demagogues, fanatics, those upon whom all government, however regular, sits like fetters of steel, are loudest in their vociferations for liberty, which is to them a license for every bad passion. Its meaning with these is very different from what the true patriot and lover of country claims. We have no faith here. In our opinion, no men, no nation of men, who were ever fit for true liberty, ever lost it. Dungeons, bolts and bars cannot confine—whips cannot tame its noble spirit. *The man who is a slave was never free!* We have no sympathy with the slave or the nation of slaves. They were made for that condition or they would never occupy it. Their happiness and prosperity are in this state; or,

having power (for with this every creature of God is endowed), they would break the fetter, or at least die! Let them be slaves, for freedom with such has no name, and would be a curse rather than a blessing. You could not enslave the North American Indian—he defies your bonds and dies free as his native air. You could not enslave the Anglo-Saxon—for this our fathers in the old and the new world have shown. Could slavery even be *tolerable* to me, I would pray God to continue me a slave. There is but one nation in all the world who will submit itself a willing, unresisting subject to slavery, *and that is the African!*

In every age of history the African has been a slave. His slavery began in his own country and to his own princes. The *lowest* rational being in the creation of God, next to the Hottentot, with capacities, mentally and physiologically considered, of the most groveling character, he has been the same in all ages and under all circumstances; with the identical characteristics in the cane fields of Cuba as four thousand years ago in the streets of Thebes!* He does not repine, he does not rebel. Nothing higher incites him. He toils when he is bade, and ceases the very moment that constraint is removed. If liberated and left to himself, he degenerates back to barbarism, from the civilization which slavery brought him. In the sight of every other people he is degraded, whether nominally bond or free. Social intercourse with him is impossible. His experiments in self-government have been hideous failures, as we shall see directly in considering Hayti. Throughout the British West Indies, he is a political cypher, and only kept in place by the influence of a powerful government. Siera Leone and Liberia are experiments in the face of all experience. The former has already *failed.*

If the right to hold the African in bondage were in issue, though in fact the constraint comes from his own nature, and there were not the other strong, and, as we believe, irresistible arguments from history and the Bible, for it is unnecessary to lay any stress now upon the argument for policy, growing out of the condition in which whole communities find themselves placed; strong as that argument justly is, we would take the high ground, in view of every circumstance of his case, *that the negro was created essentially to be a slave, and finds his highest development and destiny in that condition.*† Nor can I see in this a contradiction, or one ground to except to the wisdom and goodness of his Creator, whose ways are too far above mine to be perfectly comprehended. Happiness, for aught I know, may be the ultimate end; and whatever condition produces the most of this, is right and good. As we are created with different intelligences little less than angels and idiots; with different constitutions, Hercules and imbeciles; in the frozen climates of the poles, where bread must be earned by struggles with terrible nature—or about the equator, where spontaneous fruits make earth a

* The archæological and hieroglyphical researches, in Egypt, clearly demonstrate this—vide Gliddon's Lectures; Dr. Nott, in Southern Quarterly Review, and Commercial Review, Nov., 1847; also Dr. Cartwright in S. Q. Review.

† The reader will, if possible, read Dr. Cartwright's paper on the negro, in the Southern Quarterly Review; we forget the volume. He supports powerfully this position, as also does Dr. Nott, of Mobile.

garden of paradise, so can I see no ground for presuming the *equality* of mankind. There is no argument *a priori*. If an argument be framed, it must come from *facts*, and all facts are opposed to the theory. Perhaps I had rather be a slave than an idiot, were it possible for my nature to be enslaved. Perhaps I had rather be a slave in the genial skies of the tropics, than a savage among tumbling icebergs or in the wilds of Africa; or perhaps nature, more kind and wise, may determine for me. I am so fashioned, however, as to decide, beyond one question, the propriety of the existence of slavery, from the fact that it *has* existed *in* certain people, from the remotest periods of time, not only without resistance, but with ready acquiescence; that they have flourished under it, and become civilized and useful, and in every experiment, even under the most favorable circumstances, to alter their state, have manifested an utter incapacity for any other. A freeman myself, without any fine spun and impracticable notions of its *universal* propriety, I seek not to be wise above what is written, and am satisfied with the facts as they are given.

There never was, perhaps, a more systematic slave dealer than Great Britain—not even New England—but, becoming suddenly afflicted with a sense of her wrongs, under the scourges of conscience, she took a turn and vowed henceforward the world should all be free. We make this charitable supposition of *conscientiousness* from the promptings of a liberal nature—for it is well known that *philanthropy* knocked a very long time at the doors of parliament before it was heard, and some have unkindly insinuated, was only heard when *interest* whispered *your West India possessions are not fertile enough to compete with foreign islands.* You have immense empires in the east, capable of unlimited production, which others have not. *Liberate your West India slaves; force them, as you can then, to liberate theirs, and you have the monopoly of the world!* This has been insinuated, and the late importation of African apprentices (?) squints awfully at the practical *interest* view of the matter.

But let this be as it may. Great Britain liberated her slaves, and we are about to show, however uncharitable in us, that whether instigated by the highest benevolence or most sordid interest, she has absurdly blundered in her course, injuring every one that she would have benefited, and benefiting every one she would have injured.

In 1838 the fiat went forth that 800.000 slaves were freemen, and that, in the sufferance of government, eight shillings in the pound value for every slave would be paid to his master. Thus by grinding taxation upon the laboring classes of England, was raised £20.000.000 to be applied to the purchase of £50.000.000 property, consecrated as such by law; and with little regard to the views of the property holders themselves, was secured emancipation. This was the first pecuniary cost. We shall see hereafter it was but a tithe of what had to be incurred.

There was an intermediate *apprenticeship* state established. Captain Capadose, who was in command of the forces when the news was received in the islands, gives us in his work, a graphic sketch of the scene: "The negroes crowded round to hear the news, frantic;" but when told of six years apprenticeship, "No six years, no six years, they

vociferated beyond all bound of control." Explanations were vain. The police were called out and martial law contemplated. "Every thing looked mightily like insurrection" (this was in Trinidad), "the negroes flocked to town and would not return to their masters, so that the magistrates were compelled to exert the power vested in them, and make some examples by having corporal punishment inflicted on a few of the strong and refractory men, which had the desired effect, and the apprentices returned to the estates."

However, slavery has ceased and apprenticeship has ceased, at least for the original blacks, and fifteen years have passed. We naturally desire to know the result of the experiment. It has surely had sufficient time to work. It has been tried under the most favorable auspices. Other nations have an interest in these results. France has, because her revolutionary government is on the eve of a similar movement. The United States have, for we have near 3.000.000 slaves; and some very wise and very humane men are ever urging us to set them free, to rove untrammeled as they wist, over the wealthiest states of the Union. These gentlemen cannot, of course, object to our pointing to their own bantlings, emancipation and Hayti, in the West Indies, and receiving instruction from that quarter. It is but fair, too, that British writers should speak, whose prejudices would naturally induce them to give the most favorable account, even if there were American authorities to consult. On so interesting a point, the reader will pardon our frequent and extended quotations. And first from the work of Col. Capadose, who was an officer sixteen years in the islands, published in London, 1845. We ought also to observe, that the writer is a great advocate for emancipation and the negroes.

"The greatest drawback to agriculture, in the West Indies, is the idleness of the negroes, who work only four hours in the day, and then (notwithstanding the high wages they receive) very negligently; three-quarters of a dollar each per diem, or rather for four hours superficial work, besides other advantages equivalent to one dollar, is what is usually paid to them. Many will not work at all so long as they have any money, and, upon the slightest word of reproach, quit the estate forever. My friends were in great anxiety, lest, through the misconduct of these willful laborers, the crops of this year should be lost; and, as every month increases their insolence, there was a worse prospect for the future."—Vol. i, 29.

"I could not see the machinery in operation, as nearly all the work people had left in consequence of a slight reprimand he had given them, for impertinence and disrespect to the gentleman, his assistant, who, being disturbed one night by their boisterous singing, dancing and noisy music, mildly requested them to go to a greater distance from his lodging. Instead of complying with his reasonable request, they told him he might go and sleep at the mill, for they should not move to please him," &c., &c.—Vol. i, 35.

"They (the negroes) are too indolent for so important an object; for, whilst they possess lands capable of enriching them in the highest degree, they simply cultivate what they require for present support—a small quantity of rice, cocoa, coffee, Indian corn, ground provisions, and some few of the tropical fruits. With property abounding with the finest trees and materials, their cottages are poor looking, miserable dwellings."—Vol, i, 39.

"The whole way I passed cocoa and coffee grounds, but not in good order, and offering a gloomy illustration of what I had observed in the sugar estates, viz., the want of proper workmen. In these plantations it is the more extraordinary, as the labor is so light that children are capable of performing it; but the weeds are suffered to grow to a great height—even the gathering the fruit is scarcely performed, a greater part being allowed to drop to the ground. Every thing offers a cheerless contrast to the former flourishing state of the colony," &c., &c.—Vol. i, 45.

"But what a contrast was offered by the valley of Diego Martin; the estates

looked abandoned, and the luxuriant cocoa, coffee and sugar, which formerly gave so much beauty to the landscape, were no longer seen; long brushwood had taken their place and everything wore a neglected aspect."—Vol. i, 80.

In relation to the negroes, Col. Capadose says:

"It is deeply to be regretted that the emancipated, and the people, generally, in the colonies, are averse to agricultural labor, and that the comparatively few who do engage in it, are so unreasonable in their demands. It is equally to be lamented, that the free born rising generation seem absolutely disinclined to any pursuits of that nature, even the cultivation of gardens."—Vol. ii, 250.*

The present value of estates:

"It is affirmed that very few proprietors of estates, in the West India Colonies, now clear the expenses attendant on their cultivation; yet, in some of them, such as Tobago, Dominica, Grenada, and others, the wages paid to laborers amount to less than what the maintenance, in all probability, of a similar number of slaves would have cost before the emancipation. The loss to proprietors in those colonies must, then, arise from the difference of labor performed from its present insufficiency—whilst the laborers have an easy mode of indemnifying themselves for the lowness of wages by the sale of their ground provisions, on which they can put what price they please."—Vol. ii, 255.

An able writer, in the February number of Blackwood, 1848, paints in most fearful colors, the condition of the West Indies:

"Immediately after the emancipation act was passed, the produce of the West Indian estates began rapidly to decline, and their value to be correspondingly depreciated. This was the inevitable consequence of the abridgment of the working hours, and of the withdrawal of a great number of laborers altogether from plantation employment. In fact, the want of adequate labor began to be felt most painfully throughout the colonies. Notwithstanding this, the planters went on, making every exertion they could, under peculiarly difficult circumstances.

"The increased expense, occasioned by the altered circumstances of the colonies, soon absorbed more than the compensation money which they had received; and in addition they were urged by government to provide "more fully for the administration of justice, for the consolidation of the criminal law, for establishing circuit courts, amending the workhouse laws, improving the state of jails, for better prison discipline, establishing weekly courts of petit sessions, providing places of confinement for prisoners, raising an efficient police, &c.—things no doubt, very desirable in themselves, but not to be accomplished save at a grievous cost, which, of course, was thrown entirely upon the shoulders of the planters. The following extract from the answer of the Jamaica Assembly, in reply to the Governor's address, at the opening of that chamber on 4th August, 1835, will show the state of the colonies at the close of the year immediately subsequent to emancipation: 'Seeing large portions of our neglected cane-fields becoming overrun with weeds, and a still larger portion of our pasture lands returning to a state of nature; seeing, in fact, desolation already overspreading the face of the land, it is impossible for us, without abandoning the evidence of our own senses, to entertain favorable anticipations, or to divest ourselves of the painful conviction, that progressive and rapid deterioration of property will continue to keep pace with the apprenticeship, and that its termination must (unless strong preventive measures be applied) complete the ruin of the colony.'

"The following were the immediate and extremely natural consequences: 'There was no violence; the mass of the laboring population being left in quiet possession of the houses and grounds on the estates of their masters. For successive weeks universal idleness reigned over the whole island. The plantation cattle, deserted by their keepers, ranged at large through the growing crops, and fields of cane, cultivated at great cost, rotted upon the ground for want of hands to cut them. Among the humbler classes of society, respectable families, whose sole dependence had been a few slaves, had to perform for themselves the most menial of-

* Col. Capadose does, in several places, speak of the contentment of the negroes, and possession of physical comforts; but he is forced, at the same time, to throw himself upon the *name* of freedom, so dear; as he admits that they were "comfortable, happy and well taken care of in every way, when slaves."

fices. Still the same baneful influence continued to rule the Government. In all cases of difference the stipendiary magistrates supported the emancipated mass against the helpless proprietor, and even took an active part in supporting the demands of the people for an extravagant rate of wages, alike injurious to both classes.'

"*To the Editor of the Jamaica Despatch, Chronicle, and Gazette.*

"'Coming events cast their shadows before.'

"SIR—I have just returned from Lucea, where I have witnessed a sight any thing but gratifying to my feelings.

"A vessel has arrived from 'Trinidad de Cuba,' to load with the mill and machinery, coppers, and other apparatus from Williamsfield Estate in this parish, late the property of Mr. Alexander Grant. The estate has, since Mr. Grant's death, been, from the difficulty of the times, abandoned; and Mr. D'Castro, the owner of the vessel now at Lucea, has purchased the fixtures for an estate settling in Cuba.

"Is not the fate of Jamaica estates foreshadowed in this circumstance? Is it not a melancholy reflection that we are being wantonly sacrificed by our fellow-countrymen, solely for the agrandisement of foreigners!

"It does not require, Mr. Editor, a prophet to foretell the fate of Jamaica sugar properties, and that for every man's property destroyed here, half a dozen will flourish in Cuba. A new branch of trade is opened to us, and, for a few months, no doubt, it will be a brisk one. I would strongly recommend gentlemen who are advertising properties for sale to send the advertisement to Cuba; an estate now is not worth more than the cattle and machinery on it, and our neighbors in Cuba might obtain all the machinery necessary for the settlement of their sugar plantations on very easy terms; and it will be, no doubt, exceedingly agreeable, at some future time, when necessity compels us to quit our own country, to seek a living in Cuba, to see our late still, steam-engine, or coppers, and if we are particularly fortunate, obtain the superintendence of any one of them. I am, Mr. Editor, your obedient servant. A PROPRIETOR.

"Hanover, Oct. 23, 1847."

"The destructive results to property, by the changes thus precipitately forced on the colony, will be best manifested by reference to the exports of our three great staples—sugar, rum, and coffee:

	HHDS. SUGAR at £20.	PUNCH. RUM. at £10.	LBS. COFFEE AT 60s per 100 lbs.	ANNUAL VAL. £.
Average of the five years ending 1807, last of the African trade	131.962	50.462	23.625.377	3.852.621
Average of the five years ending 1815, date of Registry Act....	118.490	48.726	24.394.790	3.588.903
Av. of the five years ending 1823, date of Canning's Resolutions..	110.924	41.046	18.792.999	3.192.637
Average of the five years ending 1833, last five of slavery.....	95.353	35.505	17.645.602	2.791.478
Average of the five years ending 1843, first five of freedom....	42.453	14,185	7.412.498	1.213.284

"Up to 1807, the exports of Jamaica progressively rose as cultivation was extended. From that date they have been gradually sinking; but we more especially entreat attention to the evidence here adduced of the effect of emancipation, which in ten years, reduced the annual value of the three principal staples from £2.791.478, to £1.213.284, being in the proportion of seven to sixteen, or equal, at five per cent., to an investment of about thirty-two millions of property annihilated. We believe the history of the world would be searched in vain for any parallel case of oppression, perpetrated by a civilized government, upon any section of its own subjects.

"In other places the alteration and decline has been even more startling. The following table exhibits the state of exports from British Guaiana, at intervals of three years, beginning with 1827, and ending as above with 1843:

YEAR.	SUGAR. hhds.	RUM. puncheons.	MOLASSES casks.	COTTON. bales.	COFFEE. lbs. Dutch.
1827.....	71.168	22.362	28.226	15.904	8.063.752
1830.....	69.717	32.939	21.189	5.423	9.502.756

1833.....	63.415	17.824	44.508	3.699	5.704.482
1836.....	57.142	24.202	37.088	3.196	4.801.352
1839.....	38.491	16.070	12.134	1.364	1.583.250
1843.....	35.738	8.296	24.937	24	1.428.100

These, then, at first blush, are the fruits which have been abundantly reaped, and there is little to hope for in the future, despite of all the efforts which the returning reason of the mother country annually puts forth. To us, it is too plainly manifest, the doom of the British West Indies is irrevocably sealed.

The Hon. John C. Calhoun, when Secretary of State, in 1844, dispatched, we believe, a private agent to the West Indies, in quest of information for the department, and with the results before him, produced that celebrated letter to Mr. King, which did so much in opening the eyes of France and other nations. The strong yet truthful colors in which the condition of the colonies are developed, warrants an extract in our pages.

"The experiment, &c., has turned out to be a costly one. She has expended nearly one hundred millions of dollars in indemnifying the owners of the emancipated slaves. It has been estimated that the increased price paid since, by the people of Great Britain, for sugar and other tropical productions, in consequence of the measure, is equal to half that sum; and that twice that amount has been expended in the suppression of the slave trade—making together, two hundred and fifty millions of dollars as the expense of the experiment. Instead of realizing her hope, the result has been a sad disappointment. Her tropical products have fallen off to a vast amount. Instead of supplying her own wants and those of nearly all Europe, with them, as formerly, she has now, in some of the most important articles, scarcely enough to supply her own. What is worse, her own colonies are actually consuming sugar produced by slave labor, brought direct to England, or refined in bond, and exported and sold in her colonies as cheap, or cheaper, than they can be produced there; while the slave trade, instead of diminishing, has, in fact, been carried on to a greater extent than ever. So disastrous has been the result, that her fixed capital vested in tropical possessions, estimated at the value of near five hundred millions of dollars, is said to stand on the brink of ruin.

"But this is not the worst. While this costly scheme has had such ruinous effects upon the tropical productions of Great Britain, it has given a powerful stimulus, followed by a corresponding increase of products, to those countries which have had the good sense to shun her example. There has been, it is estimated by them, invested in the production of tropical products, since 1808, in fixed capital, nearly four thousand millions of dollars, wholly dependent on slave labor. In the same period, the value of their products is estimated to have risen from about $72.000.000 annually, to nearly $220.000.000, while the whole of the fixed capital of Great Britain vested in cultivating tropical products, both in the East and West Indies, is estimated only at about $830.000.000, and the value of the products annually, at about $50.000.000. To present a still more striking view: of three articles of tropical products—sugar, coffee, and cotton—the British possessions, including the West and East Indies, and Mauritius, produced, in 1842, of sugar, only 3.993.771 pounds, while Cuba, Brazil, and the United States, excluding other countries having tropical possessions, produced 9.600.000 pounds; of coffee, the British possessions produced only 27.293.003 pounds, while Cuba and Brazil produced 201.595.125 pounds, and of cotton, the British possessions, including shipments to China, only 137.443.446 pounds, while the United States alone produced 790.479.275 pounds." —*Senate Documents*, 1844.

But let us go a little into the details of these emancipation movements, and of those, the necessary sequence, demanded by the condition of the islands—protests upon protests, petitions upon petitions, committees in parliament, and reports, navigation and tariff laws,

crimination and recrimination, by parties and ministers, in one continued, uninterrupted series.

The colonists deserve the fate they have suffered. They were deluded with open eyes into an assent to a scheme which they at least should have known to be impracticable. The alluring promises so liberally made, have not been kept. Indeed, no government could be supposed absurd enough to keep them, if it had the power. There is a point beyond which men will not endure *taxation*, and they are reaching it. Let the colonist partake of the bitter fruits of *his* fanaticism without complaint. He could have averted the evil. He should have placed his foot upon the imprescriptible rights of a British subject, and resisted the encroachment. *Magna Charta* and the constitution of Parliament were the bulwarks of his *property* as his *person*. The power was his to have defied and resisted, even unto death. We admit the difficulties of the position, but he should have been firm and unmoved. To him the negro's character was familiar; and let us ask, what slaveholder of South Carolina, Mississippi, or Louisiana, even if ignorant of the results in the West Indies, would hesitate a moment about the availability of *free* black labor in any department of tropical agriculture? We shall see, now, the same confessions wrung from British lips. The extract is from Blackwood, for February, 1848:

"The negro is more fully alive, perhaps, than any other class of mankind, to the luxury of undisturbed idleness. He has few wants, and those few are easily supplied in such a splendid island as Jamaica, where his provision ground, with the smallest possible amount of cultivation, will afford him the necessaries and some of the luxuries of life. What he cannot raise for himself, must of course be obtained by labor; but a very slight portion, indeed, of the primal curse now lights upon the emancipated negro, who has no ambition, and, consequently, no motive to persevere.

"It has been perfectly well ascertained, that the constitution of Europeans will not admit of their pursuing out-door labor in a tropical climate; and, therefore, white labor is out of the question. The natives of Madeira, indeed, have been tried, but they are unfit for the work; and even were it otherwise, the supply from that quarter is limited. Coolies were brought out from the East Indies at an enormous expense, equal to two-fifths of their wages, for a period of five years. It is well known, that of the last lots of Portuguese and Coolies (those of 1845–6), nearly one-half have been, since that period, on the sick list, most of them not seriously ill, but in that feeble and inert state which change of climate is apt to produce.

"From all this, and from the experience of centuries, it is evident, that the African alone is physically suited to undergo with ease and without danger, the fatigue of field labor in the climates which are suited for sugar cultivation. We shall presently allude to the obstacles which have been thrown in the way of obtaining a supply of free labor from that quarter; and we think we shall be able to convince the most scrupulous reader, that the line of conduct adopted by the pseudo-friends of the African, is one most admirably calculated to foster the state of barbarism, cruelty, ignorance, oppression and crime, which is the melancholy characteristic of the inhabitants of that unhappy country."

Let these stubborn facts rebuke the presumptuous interference of those in certain sections of our own Union, with the institutions of other sections, about which they are practically as ignorant as was the British nation of the character of the people they set loose upon the world. Shall the momentous experiment, made under such auspicious circumstances, result less disastrously when made under circumstances infinitely more unfavorable? The negro, by nature, is fierce and ungovernable, and submits to exertion under pressure only of the greatest exigencies or constraint. His aspirations are gross and sensual.

Satisfy these, and he will bask in the sun, and doze away life in stupid insensibility. To suppose such a people capable of self-government, and of accommodating themselves to all the regulations and duties of a civilized state of society, is a monstrous assumption.

One act of palpable iniquity is brought home upon the British government. After forming a solemn compact with the master, to allow him *six* years of labor, termed *apprenticeship*, in his slave, and a certain sum of money, in consideration of his after freedom, the parliament of England, in its infinite highness, undertook to dissolve this compact by abridging to *four years* the service of the negro! But

> "The way found prosperous once,
> Induces best to hope of like success."

Among the earliest complaints of the planters were, that they were neglected by the home government; that no facilities were afforded for the introduction of apprentices [?] from Africa or the East Indies; but, on the contrary, impediments imposed. The last complaint amounts to this—contracts made with such apprentices in their native country are of no force. They must be made in the colony; this is plain. A contract made with a barbarian, in his native wilds, would have few points in the barbarian's favor. He understands equally well, the title of slave and apprentice!

These complaints were disregarded, and the planters allowed the full protection for their products, enjoyed up to 1834, viz.: a differential duty of twenty-one shillings per cwt., imposed in their favor, upon all sugars imported into England from foreign countries.* For this much they were to submit to the following restrictions. We extract from the *London Economist:*

> "1st, They were confined to the British markets for their supplies of lumber, food and clothing; 2dly, They were prevented importing fresh labor, under what we always deemed an unworthy suspicion—that immigration would degenerate into a slave trade, and immigrant labor into slavery; 3dly, They were precluded the privilege of sending their produce to Europe in any but British ships, which not unfrequently entailed an extra cost of two to three pounds a ton upon their sugar; 4thly, And at home, out of regard to the landed interest, their rum was subjected to a high discriminating duty in favor of British-made spirits, and their sugar and molasses were entirely excluded from our breweries and distilleries."

In 1844 an innovation was made, by rendering the duty dependent entirely upon the place of growth, viz.: in *free* or *slave* countries. In 1846 this distinction was entirely abrogated, and a scale adopted for the final and early introduction of all sugars, upon a common footing; a measure of whig policy, induced by the growing popularity of free trade doctrines. The differential duty for 1846, was six shillings per cwt.; in 1850 it is to be *nothing*.

The effect of this tariff arrangement has been, as stated by Mr. Calhoun, to stimulate, in an extraordinary degree, the growth of slave sugar; which, in Cuba, within a few years, from 60.000 per annum, has swelled to over 200.000 tons. The same may be remarked of Louisiana and other countries. This competition must be met by the British colonies, with all the fetters of their navigation laws. They are even

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* Thus the duty on colonial sugar was £1 4*s.*; on foreign, £3 3*s.*

told that Havana sugars are worth five shillings the hundred more in point of color and strength, growing out of superior working.

A writer in Blackwood gives some interesting statistics of the cost of producing sugar in the different islands:

"'From many calculations,' writes a highly intelligent and experienced correspondent, 'the lowest rate at which sugar *can* be produced, is about twenty shillings per cwt., on the average, or twenty pounds per ton. No doubt some estates may, and do, grow it cheaper than others. They may have advantages of situation, both in regard to weather and command of labor; but one thing I am certain of, that no number of estates taken collectively, can grow it much under twelve shillings.'

Cost of production in slave countries, per ton	£12	0	0
Add duty £1 per cwt	20	0	0
Cost, irrespective of freight	£32	0	0
Cost of production in free labor colonies	£20	0	0
Add duty 14*s.* per cwt.	14	0	0
Difference of value between slave and free sugar, at the lowest estimate, or 3*s.* per cwt.	3	0	0
Cost, irrespective of freight	£37	0	0

The following statistics show the depreciation in value of a few leading estates:

"In 1838, the value of the estates, owing to the want of labor, had fallen from one-third to a half. The following is the account of some of the estates:

	Price in 1838.	*Former price.*
Anna Catherina estate	£30.000	£50.000
Providence	38.000	80.000
Thomas	20.000	40.000

In 1840, the depreciation became greater. Here are a few examples:

Rome and Houston estate	£40.000	£100.000
Success	30.000	55.000
Kitty	26.000	60.000
William	18.000	40.000

"In 1844, the Groenveldt estate, formerly valued at £35.000, was sold for £10.000. In 1845, the Baillie's Hope estate, formerly valued at £50.000, was disposed of for £7.000. And in 1846, the Haarlem estate went for £3.500, whereas its previous value was not less than £50.000."

The cry of the planters is now for higher protection, and it resounds every where in the colonies and with terrific force in parliament. Ten shillings on the cwt. of sugar is the lowest amount which they consider consistent with the further existence of the colonies! Will their demands be met? For the interests of sound government we hope not.

What right have the planters to expect a restoration of the old sugar duties and even higher ones, with all the support of the high friends they have in England? Shall the power of taxation be given to *them*? Were the government of Lord John Russel to make a sudden sommerset and find itself supported in the popular sympathies of England, a thing almost impossible, it might be considered an act of *magnificent benevolence*, upon the part of a *generous* nation, submitting itself to onerous taxation; never an act of *justice* accorded to whom it was *due!* Does it not involve an absurdity to suppose that in the compact with the slave owner he was to be allowed *forever* afterward to dispose of his products in the London markets at much higher,

even *double* their true valuation, as regulated by supply and demand throughout the world? We say *forever*—for, if with nearly twenty years of protection under the emancipation, he has been sinking lower and lower, when in the name of heaven will he be able to stand alone? Is it not a vain struggle against the power of nature and circumstances? The monstrous folly of submitting *forever* to such an outrage upon trade and enterprise, could not for a moment have entered the minds of the English people, however deluded in other respects—an outrage without equivalent—unmitigated wrong—support to a tottering and baseless fabric!

But we have no time to continue any further our asseverations here, but must pass to concluding sections of the article.

4. Dependencies of Holland.—The three islands of Saint Eustatia and its dependencies, Saba, St. Martin and Curacoa, are the property of the Dutch, who have never made any considerable figure in the western world.

Saint Eustatia is in circumference thirty miles, and has an area of one hundred and ninety square miles. Its appearance from the sea is that of a conical mountain, though much of its surface is level and covered with vegetation. Tobacco is an important product, but sugar, cotton, indigo, provisions and stock, are exported. Having been the center of immense contraband trade during the war, Admiral Rodney is said to have taken with the island £4.000.000 booty. The commerce and prosperity of St. Eustatia have declined. The product of sugar now is only about 1.000 barrels, and the population has decreased from five thousand whites and fifteen thousand slaves, to three or four hundred whites and about two thousand slaves. *Saba* is altogether unimportant. The island was settled by the Dutch, in 1635; it has since changed hands with France and England, and finally given to Holland, in 1814.

Saint Martin.—This island was originally settled by the French and Dutch, and is divided between them—the French part being attached to Guadaloupe and embracing a population of six hundred free, and three thousand slaves. The Dutch population is about equally numerous. They each produce about 25.000 cwt. of sugar, and 130.000 galls. of rum. The whole area of St. Martin is only thirty square miles. Salt is largely produced.

Curacoa, the largest of the Dutch islands, contains an area of eight hundred square miles and thirteen thousand five hundred inhabitants, of whom three thousand are white, five thousand five hundred free colored, and five thousand slaves. Sugar and salt are the great staples. Its capital is Williamstadt, a well built town, governed by a stadtholder. The English had possession in 1807. In common with all the Dutch colonies, the expenses are much greater than the revenue.

The Dutch have, also, a portion of *Guaiana*, on the South American coast, called *Surinam*, from the name of its capital. There are one thousand and fifty estates of sugar, cotton, coffee, indigo, cocoa, &c. It is said that the government in Holland, in 1842, appointed a commission to determine the best mode of extinguishing the institution of slavery in the colonies; and the governor told Col. Capadose, in 1845, the only thing that prevented the Dutch government from acting, was

the want of means to compensate the great losses which would result to the planters. The population, in 1840, was 9.475 free, 46.908 slaves, and 6.300 friendly bush negroes. Export, 1841:

Sugar	31.386.646	lbs.
Coffee	1.958.840	"
Cotton	1.467.070	"
Molasses	1.020.258	galls.
Rum	82.374	" &c., &c.

5. DEPENDENCIES OF DENMARK.—*St. Thomas* was settled by the Danes, in 1672, and contains thirty-seven square miles. The soil is not productive, and sugar and cotton but little cultivated. Population, five hundred whites, one thousand five hundred free, five thousand slaves. The island was twice in the hands of Britain. Its chief town is a place of great activity and spreads over considerable extent. "Vessels from all parts are seen in the harbor, persons of all nations in the streets, and languages of every kind heard in the hotels and public places." Population by one account 12.000. "The real history of the island," says a writer in *Colonial Magazine*, "is unwritten; but that it has been the scene of more atrocities, and the refuge for more outlaws than any other ocean isle, is certain." The sales of merchandise in St. Thomas are vast. Goods are landed duty free, which enables it to command the trade of the islands and of South America. The slave trade is carried on here. "Long, low, black schooners," says an English account, "were notoriously fitted out in this harbor, within the present century, but these vessels had secret owners, accessories and agents here, while their bloody flag infested these seas."

IMPORTS OF ST. THOMAS, 1840.

From Great Britain	$2.110.000
" France	640.000
" Hamburg, &c	960.000
" Bremen	199.000
" United States	968.000
" Other places	133.000
	$4.997.000

Spanish, American, and West India arrivals, in 1840, 1.568 vessels; 48.024 tonnage.

Santa Cruz.—From a sketch by Thurlow Weed, we learn that the English and Dutch took possession in 1625; that the latter were expelled in 1649, and the former destroyed by the Spaniards the following year. The French again received possession in 1761, but transferred it in 1653 to the "Knights of Malta." The French abandoned the island in 1720, for St. Domingo, but returned again and sold it to the Copenhagen merchants for £30.750, who sold it to the king of Denmark. The English in 1801 and 1807 seized upon the island. Its area is eighty miles. Population in 1841, 3.200 whites, 30.000 slaves. The product of sugar, coffee, cotton, and indigo have declined. In 1800 there were produced 40.000 hhds. sugar, and 20.000 puncheons rum; in 1846 about 20.000 hhds. sugar, and 14.000 puncheons rum. Christianstoed is the principal town and has five thousand inhabitants. The English language is mostly in use. The island, in common with the others, is under a governor general. The code of Christian V. is

in force. The slaves in all the Danish colonies are in course of gradual emancipation.

Saint John is the remaining Danish island, and is thirteen miles long and six broad. It is unimportant.

6. DEPENDENCY OF SWEDEN.—*St. Bartholomew.*—Area twenty-five square miles; population six thousand blacks, two thousand whites. It is abundantly fertile in sugar, cotton, tobacco, &c., &c., &c.

7. HAYTI.—Notwithstanding the contrary desire, we must be content with a brief reference to Hayti, which, indeed, furnishes in its history, the materials for whole volumes. The world has seen with astonishment, and we trust with profit, the crimes which have been committed, and the ruin which has resulted, in a land once blessed with sound government and unexampled prosperity. We doubt if history presents any parallel, where the sanctions of freedom and independence have been given for so long a period, to a reign of guilt, terror, and devastation. Fearful is the responsibility of those who applied the incendiary torch to such materials.

The area of Hayti is 29.500 square miles, and its population about 700.000, of which, one-tenth part only are whites and colored. One-half of the island came into possession of France in 1691, by cession from Spain.

Unexampled prosperity crowned the efforts of the French in the island, up to that period, when the convulsions at home, induced by the revolution of 1790, began to extend their influences. The assembly in Paris proclaimed "universal freedom," and the blacks in the colony caught up the cry, and prepared for the dreadful orgies of blood.

The world has been abundantly satisfied, that all the horrors of the insurrection which ensued, are attributable to the fanaticism of the popular leaders in France, sustained by certain abolition societies in England, and the irresolution and mistaken policy of the colonial authorities in the island. But for these, the negro had remained content and happy, and mankind been spared the dreadful drama enacted by him.

We may, at some other time, go into the minutiæ of these movements, and furnish the reader an unvarnished narrative. The picture should ever be present in the minds of the south and of the north, that our country may be spared the repetition of the tithe only of these crimes. There is something terrible, if we judge from its fruits, in the very title, *amis des noirs*, "friends of the blacks," by whomsoever worn. The zeal and sincerity, yet indiscretion of these men, lead them to rush on where angels might hesitate a step. Well might even the negro himself pray to be saved, harmless, from his friends. Hereafter, when we speak of Hayti, we shall refer, with full particulars, to all the movements in behalf of the African—*Siera Leone* and *Liberia*, *colonization* and *abolition*—and exhibit them in their true colors.

We pass over the tumultuous and revolutionary history of Hayti, since its independence, down to the present moment, when conflicting armies are in the field, and the catalogue of crimes in the annals of Desalines, Christophe, Petion, and Boyer, successive presidents and despots.

The following table shows more than all language can, the decline and fall of Hayti:

EXPORTS FROM HAYTI, 1789, 1801—1841.

	Clayed Sugar.	*Muscovado.*	*Coffee.*	*Cotton.*
	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
1789.....	47.516.531	93.573.300	76.835.219	7.004.274
1801.....	16.540	18.518.572	43.420.470	2.480.340
1818.....	198	5.443.567	26.065.200	474.118
1819.....	157	3.790.143	29.240.919	216.103
1820.....	2.787	2.514.502	35.137.759	346.839
1821.....		600.934	29.925.951	820.563
1822.....		200.454	24.235.372	592.368
1823.....		14.920	33.802.837	332.266
1824.....		5.106	44.269.084	1.028.045
1825.....		2.020	36.034.300	815.697
1826.....		32.864	32.189.784	629.972
1835.....		1.097	48.352.371	
1836.....		16.199	37.662.674	
1837.....			30.845.400	
1840.....		741	46.126.272	922.575
1841.....		1.363	34.114.717	1,591.454

Well does Mr. McGreggor remark, and with this we close: "What the destiny of Hayti may be, we will not attempt to determine, further than the revolutions of 1842, 3, 4, 5, and 6—the expulsion of President Boyer—the atrocities committed by the negroes on the colored races—the contests and distractions between the former political men on the island—the insecurity which prevails—the non-payment of the installments of indemnity to France—the neglect of agriculture—the consequent want of products for trade, and the lax morals and indolence of the population, are all subjects, when deliberately considered, that do not leave us much good to hope for, in the prospects of Hayti."*

GERMAN POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES.—We take the following from the Mercantile Times, New York:

"The states which have received German immigrants, and to which they have given decided character, are, Pennsylvania and Ohio, where about one-third are of German origin; western New York, about one-fourth; Indiana, Illinois, and Michigan, about one-fifth; and Missouri, Iowa, and Wisconsin, toward which latter states, the tide is now pressing, large numbers of Norwegians mingling in.

F. Von Raumer makes the German population of the United States considerably larger than the above estimate. We subjoin it. He says:

Of 18.980.000 inhabitants, 4.886.000 were in the year 1844, Germans, viz.:

Pennsylvania,	880.000	out of	1.938.000 inhabitants.
Ohio,	764.000		1.784.000
New York,	527.000		2.641.000
Indiana,	309.000		783.000
Tennessee,	281.000		721.000
Illinois,	265.000		633.000
That is,	3.037.000		8.730.000

"The number is increasing with greater rapidity now than at any former period. The thought of leaving the fatherland, to seek a new star of fortune across the sea, which once sent a pang to the German heart, has now become so much an every-day matter, that thousands follow thousands in a constant stream."

* The reader will, by reference to Vols. 1, 2, 3 and 4 of Commercial Review, find much additional information on the West Indies.

HAVANA, April 19, 1848.

J. D. B. DE BOW, Esq.

Dear Sir:—Agreeably to my promise I am doing my best to collect all the data required to give you a fair comparative statement of sugar making, in this island and in Louisiana by the old set of kettles, and by the other methods, and which I shall communicate upon my return.

The present average price of negroes in the Island of Cuba, is $500 round—good plantation hands bring $600, and such for the last twelve months have never been lower than $408. The slave trade is so much suppressed that the sugar planters here have now to buy city servants through negro brokers, or to buy coffee estates with the slaves upon them. About a fortnight ago a coffee estate with 35 negroes, say 22 good hands and 13 old and children, was sold at $20,000,—payable one half cash, the other half in first rate Havana commercial acceptance, at 6 months, with interest. The slaves have been removed to the sugar estate of the buyer, and he has offered the coffee estate, from which only the slaves have been removed, for $3000, but has not as yet had an offer as high as $2500. If he could obtain this price for the land, the slaves would then stand him at $17,000 equal to $500 round.

The following statement of a plantation managed in the most saving manner, has been furnished to me, and which shows that the annual expenses of a sugar plantation in this island is greater than in Louisiana.

The estate is near the shipping port, on rich, new bottom land. There are in cane 260 acres—in plantain, corn, provisions and cattle peas, and occupied by buildings and roads 154 acres—in wood 919 acres—the whole 1333 acres—120 negroes—out of which 70 hands—50 yoke of oxen, carts, &c. The crop is

Sugar, 700 hhds. of 1580 lbs. each, 1,106,000 lbs. @ 2½ cts. in port,	$27,650 00
Packages, 700 @ $5 making,	3,500 00
Molasses, 350 hhds. of 140 gals. each, @ $5 on plantation,	1,750 00
	32,900 00

EXPENSES.

Salaries of Overseer, Engineer, Sugar Maker, and Assistant, Carpenter, Ox driver &c.	2685	
Cost of hhds., transportation, loss in oxen, repairing buildings and Machinery.	6900	
Feeding, clothing, medical attendance, &c., for 120 negroes,	2439	12,022 00
		$20,878 00

NETT PROCEEDS.

The sugar is sold at 2.816 cts. on account of the extra charge for the hhds. To this price must be added the export duty, &c.

The yearly yield per hand is 15,800 lbs. of sugar, the average per head 9216 lbs.

The yearly expenses of each one of the 120 negroes is as follows, feeding $11 60, clothing $4 96, medical attendance and medicine $3 75, making in all $20 31.

700 hhds. or 1,106,000 lbs. kettle sugar, is the average yield of the said plantation—till now every year they could cut but two-thirds of the cane. The production is thus limited only by the grinding labor, and it is the case on every new sugar estate on the island. It is the same on our plantations with good new land. Here the grinding season lasts an average of five months, not six months as stated by some of your contributors, with us it lasts but two and a half months. I think 8000 lbs. a fair average yield per hand on our good land and well managed plantations having 60 to 80 hands, and using the common set of kettles. Therefore they make yearly in this island per hand twice as much as we do—and it is true they have twice as much time to do it, and I cannot see any grounds for their claim to superiority over our planters.

Your obedient servant.

N. RILLIEUX.

JOURNAL OF BANKING AND FINANCE.

No. I.—CHRONOLOGICAL HISTORY OF THE CURRENCY.

We are persuaded we can render no more acceptable service to our readers than in presenting to their attention the following able and accurate "Chronological sketch of the principal events in British History relating to the Currency," taken from the Westminster Review. The intimate connexion which exists between the thousand various articles which contribute to the trade of a nation, and serves consequently to augment its wealth, is too clearly seen and universally acknowledged to require enforcement at our hands. Dependence is felt not only in the social relations which exist in a country, but also in the measure to which her commerce is enlarged. If then, one article of trade is dependent upon another for the price it maintains, and one country upon another for the greater cheapness either of its food or clothing, how necessary is it that we should regard with a watchful eye the mainspring of trade, which is the currency. In the article then which we subjoin, we are placed in possession of light through which the many thousand problems involved in the course of trade and operations of the currency may receive a clear and ready solution.—EDITOR.

The use of the precious metals, as money, was probably known in some parts of England at an earlier period than the invasion of Julius Cæsar, through the intercourse kept up with Cornwall by commercial nations known to have visited it for tin; but it may be assumed that metallic *coins* were first introduced by the Romans. On the departure of the Romans, and when the country was given up for several centuries to intestine divisions, we meet with, in the brief records of the time, occasional notices of the scarcity of money; and a species *of living money* may be said to have supplied the place of coin during a part of the Anglo-Saxon period. Slaves (the *theowes* or *servi* of "Doomsday Book") and oxen passed current in the payment of debts. The price of a slave was four oxen. The export of slaves to Ireland (then in the hands of the Danes) was the chief feature of the trade of Chester and Bristol. This was restricted, but not altogether abolished, by Canute, about the year 1030.

1066.—The Conquest. The ancient *Tower pound* (11 oz. 5 dwts. troy) of fine silver, with 3 dwts. of alloy (seignorage), coined into 20*s*. by William the Norman. Each shilling divided into twelve pence or *sterlings*. The same system of coinage which had been introduced in France by Charlemagne. A foreign gold coin in use at this period called a *Bezant*, ten of which were about equal to the Tower pound of standard silver.

1100 to 1135.—Reign of Henry 1st. *Tallies* first mentioned in the statutes of this reign (c. 56), as a means of collecting the revenue.

1229.—The Pope's Nuncio having acquired great influence in England, through the weakness of King John's government, orders the "tenths" to be collected in money instead of in kind. Payment exacted with great severity; and the rate of interest raised by the usurers to 60 per cent.

1257.—Gold pennies coined by Henry III. A gold penny weighed two *sterlings*, or 45 grs. troy. This was the first gold coin struck by English monarchs.

1262.—The middle or average price of the quarter of wheat, as gathered from the 51 of Henry III., regulating the assize of bread and ale, 10*s*. per quarter (30*s*. in shillings of the present weight and standard.*) The barons, during this reign, reproached Henry III. with pawning the credit of the Crown by issuing "*Tallies* for the victuals of his table."

1274.—A Parliament called by Edward I, to restrain *usury*, and oblige all Jews to wear a badge.

1279.—Two hundred and eighty Jews hanged for clipping and coining.

1289.—The Jews banished the kingdom by Edward I.

The Jews were succeeded in their vocation of money-brokers by Italian mer-

* Adam Smith, book 1. chapter xi.

chants from Lombardy, who resided in that part of the city which is still called after them *Lombard Street*, or the street of the Lombards. The stalls or benches at which their business was transacted gave rise to the term "bank," from the Italian *banco*, a bench. The Lombards were succeeded as private bankers or traders in money by the London goldsmiths; one of whom, Mr. Child, established about the time of the Restoration, the earliest of the modern banking firms still existing, that of Messrs. Child & Co., Temple Bar.

1336.—The exportation of English and Foreign coins prohibited by 9th Edward III., caps. 1, 9, 10, 11.

1337.—The Lombard money dealers accused of extortion, and their property seized and confiscated by a Royal commission.

1344.—Gold *florins* coined by Edward III.; but having been issued above their value, they were superseded the same year by a new gold coinage of *nobles*, *half nobles*, and *farthing nobles*. The *noble* was commanded to be a legal tender at 6*s*. 8*d*. (about 13*s*. 4*d*. in silver of the present *standard*, and about 24*s*. in silver at its present *value*.)

From this date till the year 1774, a *double standard* prevailed in England, silver and gold coins being both a legal tender; the silver coins at the price at which they were issued from the mint, the gold coins at prices fixed from time to time by royal proclamation, and governed by the market value of gold, as measured in silver.*

1349.—The *Tower pound* of standard silver, coined into 22*s*. 6*d*. by Edward III.

1350.—The middle price of wheat, by the "Statute of Laborers" (25th of Edward III.) 6*s*. 8*d*. per quarter, or 20*s*. in shillings of the present weight and standard.

1351 to 1464.—A Poll Tax of 4*d*. per head produces a popular insurrection, headed by Wat Tyler. Further debasement of the currency, in six successive coinages, by the last of which, under Edward IV., the *Tower pound* of standard silver was coined into 37*s*. 6*d*.

1382.—5th of Richard II. increases the penalties on the exportation of gold and silver coins.

1466.—5 Edward IV. The *Rial* coined, containing 5 dwts. of gold.

1489.—4th of Henry VII. increases the penalties on the exportation of coin to *double forfeiture*.

1490.—5 Henry VII. The first gold coin, called a *Sovereign*, issued at 20*s*. It contained 10 dwts. of gold;—our present sovereign contains 5 dwts. 3¼ grains.

1527.—The *pound troy* of 12 oz. substituted for the Tower pound of 11 oz. 5 dwts.; and the pound troy of standard silver coined by Henry VIII. into 40*s*. The *gold crown* coined containing 2 dwts. 9½ grs.

1528 to 1546.—Henry VIII. debases the *pound troy* of silver in the next four coinages by mixing it with 8 oz. of alloy and coining the pound troy, so composed, into 48 shillings. This was the most violent interference with the currency recorded in British history, as attempted during the lifetime of one Monarch. The *Sovereign*, in 1545, was reduced to 8 dwts. in gold. In 1546, the maximum of interest was fixed at 10 per cent., 37 Henry 8, c. 9; previous to which all interest had been considered usury by statute.

1547 to 1551.—In the next three coinages, the pound troy is further debased by Edward VI., and made to contain 9 oz. alloy, and coined into 72*s*.

This was the extreme point attained by the progressive adulteration of the coinage. The shilling of William the Norman, which had contained 266 grains of fine silver, *now contained only* 20 *grains;* a difference nearly as great as that between twelve pence and three farthings;† but we have to remember that *the real value*, or purchasing power over food and labor, of silver, had been progressively increasing up to this time, from the gradual discontinuance throughout Europe of the custom of payments *in kind*, and the consequent growing demand for money, which exceeded the average productiveness of the mines then worked. The average value, in other commodities, of *three farthings* in 1541, was about equal to that of *three pence* in 1066. Prior therefore to the reign of Henry VIII., the *depreciation* of the coinage by adulteration had not been nearly so great as the *appreciation* of the same quantity of fine silver by scarcity.

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* Lord Liverpool, Treatise on Coins.

† The particulars we have given of the coins are taken from the tables supplied in the 'Essays on Money, Exchanges,' &c., by Henry James.

The last mentioned debasement of the coinage was formally sanctioned by Parliament as a subsidy, "that the king might gain thereby £220,000," but limited for this object, to the adulteration of 20,000 lbs. weight of silver bullion; but about the same time, the Parliament determined upon the equally impolitic measure, in an opposite extreme, of returning to the ancient standard to the extent at least of restoring the purity of the silver in the current coin.

1552.—The proportion of alloy to fine silver, reduced from 9 oz. to 19 dwts., and the pound troy coined into 60*s*. A commercial treaty concluded with Sweden, of which the conditions were made to depend upon the importation of bullion.

1553.—Edward the VI. dies (July 6th) in the 16th year of his age. A new coinage by Queen Mary of the same Mint standard as the last.

1554.—Philip of Spain, on his marriage with Mary, brings over with him 27 chests, 99 horse-loads, and two cart loads of gold and silver bullion; all subsequently spent in his foreign wars.

1555.—Growing scarcity of money. The Queen, this year, obliged to borrow of the merchants at Antwerp, £30,000, at 14 per cent. on the joint security of the corporation of London and her own. Average price of wheat for the three years, ending 1555, from Fleetwood's tables, quoted by Adam Smith, 8*s*. per quarter, in money of the present standard.

The change in the currency effected by the two last coinages of this period *quadrupled its value*. The shilling, which contained but 20 grains of pure silver in 1551, was now made to contain 88 grains. Its effect was of course to increase fourfold the burdens of rents, taxes, and every class of fixed obligations. Henry VIII. had cheated his creditors by paying them in base coin, but as his revenue was collected in base coin, he had practically lightened by it the burdens of the people; the well-intended measure of restoring the purity of the standard made them intolerable. This will be understood by the reader if he will imagine the consequences to himself of being called upon to pay his assessed taxes in sovereigns weighing each 20 dwts. 12 grs., instead of 5 dwts. 3 grs. Of course the demand for bullion would be quadrupled, as it was in Queen Mary's time; and from the increased cost of production, the coin would go abroad in remittances of payment, instead of goods, as it did then, and as it did again subsequently in the reign of William III. This explains the reason, why that cheapening of silver which resulted generally in Europe from the discovery of the mines of Potosi, in 1545, was not felt in England till the latter end of the reign of Elizabeth. The supply had increased, but not increased in England in the proportion of the artificial demand occasioned by raising the standard. Queen Mary was unpopular as a bigoted and persecuting Roman Catholic monarch, but from the first she was thrown into a false position with her subjects by causes of which neither she nor the historians of the time understood the operation. That operation, however, was far less severe than a similar measure would be in our own times, because in the reign of Mary our foreign trade was inconsiderable. The little commerce we had then was in the hands of merchants belonging to the Hanse Towns, meeting in the *Steel Yard*, and the entire revenue of England amounted but to £300,000.

1560.—The pound troy of silver, made to consist by the 2d of Elizabeth, of 11 oz. 2 dwts. of fine silver, and 18 dwts. of alloy, at which standard it has since remained. The pound troy so composed, coined by Elizabeth into 60*s*.

1562.—Wheat allowed to be exported by the 5th of Elizabeth when it reaches the price of 10*s*. per quarter, This low price quoted by Adam Smith, as an evidence of the contiued dearness of silver.

1571.—13th of Elizabeth, c. 8, confirms the 37th of Henry VIII., c. 9, fixing the maximum of interest at 10 per cent.

1580.—The Baltic Company formed. The first association of *English* merchants engaged in foreign trade.

1587.—Elizabeth defeats the Spanish Armada.

1597.—The privileges abolished of the Hanseatic merchants meeting in the Steel Yard.

1600.—The pound troy of standard silver coined by Elizabeth into 62*s*.

Subsequent coinages of the shilling have remained the same until the year 1816 when the pound troy of standard silver was coined into 64*s*.

1601.—The foundation of a systematic provision for the poor established by the 43d Elizabeth.

1603.—Elizabeth dies, and is succeeded by James I. The crown passing from the family of Tudor to that of Stewart.

1604.—Gunpowder plot.

1605.—The *Unity* Sovereign coined, containing 6 dwts. 11 grs. (The fourth change since 1545.)

1612.—The comparative cheapness of gold at this period not increasing relatively so fast as silver, gold rises 2s. per oz.

1620.—The *Laurel* Sovereign coined, containing 5 dwts. 20 grs. of gold. The average price of wheat for this year, and the twenty-five years preceding, 37s. for the quarter of eight bushels.*

1624.—The maximum of legal interest reduced from 10 to 8 per cent., by the 21st James I., c. 17.

Towards the close of the reign of Elizabeth, the influences upon prices began to be felt, of that vast and disproportionate supply of the precious metals, as compared with the demand, which resulted from the discovery and conquest of Peru. Subsequently, also, to the destruction of the Spanish Armada, England, and indeed the greater part of Europe, began to enjoy the blessings of a settled government, and with it came an expansion of credit, which, co-operating with an actual depreciation of gold and silver, but especially silver, all over the world, had, of course, a marked effect upon the nominal value of articles of merchandise, as measured by metallic coins.

Our readers will notice the falling rates of interest which commenced with this era of cheap money. David Hume and Adam Smith attribute these lower rates solely to increase of capital; contrary to the opinion of Locke, Law, and Montesquieu, who considered that the influx of the precious metals sufficiently accounted for the fact. We hold that the latter were right, although the two former had the best of the argument. David Hume and Adam Smith seem to have too hastily concluded, with some of our modern economists, that because money represents capital, therefore the demand for capital is always commensurate with the demand for money. A most serious mistake, as we have already endeavored to explain. *The demand for money depends upon the balances of trade.* Falling prices turn the scale in favor of money; rising prices turn the scale in favor of commodities. When, therefore, upon the influx of the treasures of South America, prices rose, and with them profits, the demand for money diminished; and diminishing in a more rapid ratio than its intrinsic value, in consequence of its place being supplied by the *money of account*, the result was shown in both a nominal and real reduction of interest. Let us repeat here what we may yet have to repeat again, that the test by which to discover whether a high rate of interest is or is not occasioned by a scarcity of capital, is a rise or fall of prices in reference to that kind of capital most imperatively required. If *capital* had been scarce when Queen Mary was borrowing money at 14 per cent., would the price of wheat have been 8s. per quarter? In the case before us, we see that with interest of money reduced to 8 per cent., the price of wheat had risen to 37s. per quarter.

1625.—James I. dies, and is succeeded by Charles I. Base money still continues to be issued for circulation in Ireland.

1636.—Average price of wheat at Windsor Market for the 16 years ending this year, 44s. per quarter.†

1640.—Charles I. having failed in his attempts to levy money without the consent of Parliament, and being refused an advance of £200,000 by the city of London, seizes, as a forced loan, £40,000 belonging to private merchants, deposited for safety in the Tower Mint.

1649.—Charles I. executed at Whitehall, (January 30.) The quantity of bullion coined during this reign, estimated at £12,096,220. A greater amount than was coined during the two reigns of Elizabeth and James.‡

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* 41*s.* 9*d.* for the Winchester quarter of nine bushels, by Windsor Market prices, quoted by Adam Smith.

† Fifty shillings per quarter of nine bushels.

‡ Wade's "British Chronology."

1650 to 1659.—The Commonwealth and Protectorate of Cromwell. The Jews again permitted to settle in England. The maximum of legal interest reduced to 6 per cent. Average price of wheat for the ten years ending 1659, 45*s.* 9*d.* per quarter of eight bushels.

From this period we may continue our chronological sketch at regular decennial intervals.

Period of Ten years.	Average price of Wheat per Qr. of 8 bushels. s.	d.
1660 to 1669.—Restoration of Charles II. (1660.) A return of exports and imports by Dr. Chas. D'Avenant, Inspector-general of Customs, (1662.) Exports, £2,022,812. Imports, £4,016,019. The public revenue for 1662 under £1,100,000. 1663. Gold imported from *Guinea*, and the *Guinea* Sovereign coined, containing 5 dwts. 9 grs. of gold; issued at 20*s.* Plague of London, 1665. Fire of London, 1666. The Dutch sail up the Medway, and burn our shipping, (1667.)	44	9½
1670 to 1679.—Charles II., to obtain funds for the Dutch war, shuts up the Exchequer, (1672) seizing, as a permanent loan, £1,300,000, advanced upon the security of Exchequer *Tallies*, in anticipation of the revenue. *Panic in the city. Run upon the Goldsmiths*, the private bankers of the time, many of whom were compelled to stop payment. Ten thousand families said to have been ruined by this measure. The statute of 12 Car. II., cap. 13, of the same year, again fixes the maximum of legal interest at 6 per cent.	44	9
1680 to 1689.—A penny post first set up by Mr. Murray, (1683.) Charles II. dies, and is succeeded by James II., 1685. James II. dethroned, and is succeeded by the Prince of Orange and Nassau, 1688. William III. conciliates the landed interest by granting a bounty of 5*s* per quarter on the exportation of wheat, (1689)	35	8
1690 to 1699.—First years of bounty money on the exportation of wheat; seven years of extreme dearth, during part of which the bounty money was suspended; six years of a currency depreciated in value, by light weight, 25 per cent. Guineas sold at 30*s*. The Bank of England established in 1694. The old value of the shilling restored by a new coinage, 1695. Foreign coins allowed to be exported about the same time, on oath that they were *foreign*; and watches, sword hilts, &c., of silver manufacture. *Drain of bullion. Panic. Suspension of the Bank.* Exchequer Bills first issued as a substitute for Tallies; in this case limited to £3,000,000, and issued for small sums, to relieve the pressure. The amount still represented by *Tallies* in 1698, £3,882,544.	50	1
1700 to 1709.—Years of an enhanced currency, government loans, and continental wars. The national debt raised by William III. from £6'4,263 to £16,394,701. Union with Scotland in the 5th year of Queen Anne, (1707.) Threatened invasion of the Pretender at the close of the same year. *Panic. Run upon the Bank. The Government helping it through its difficulties by guaranteeing for six months 6 per cent. interest upon* Bank *Bills.**	35	0½

We have already explained at length the disastrous effects of the new coinage, in producing an artificial scarcity of money and a falling market. These consequences would have been avoided but for the error of Locke, that "men in their bargains contract not for denominations or sounds, but for intrinsic value." He failed to perceive that intrinsic value can only be guessed at through the medium of denominations with which we are familiar, and that, therefore, when he raised the intrinsic value of the current coins, by which rents, taxes, wages, and prices had been adjusted, he should have given his new shillings *new* names. It was an excellent opyortunity lost for issuing a *decimal* coinage.

* Francis's "History of the Bank," vol. i., page 87.

Period of Ten years.	Average price of Wheat per Qr. of 8 bushels. s.	d.
1710 to 1719.—Continental wars. Victories of Marlborough. National debt on the death of Anne, increased to £53,681,076. 12 Anne, c. 16, reduces the maximum of interest to 5 per cent. Accession of George I., 1714. The following year the Pretender proclaimed in Scotland and in the western counties of England. This was preceded by *a run upon the Bank, which lasted for several days without intermission.** The price of guineas (*guinea sovereigns*) fixed at 21*s.*, 1717. The close of this period is memorable for the Mississippi and South Sea bubbles, which arose out of an universal expansion of credit when peace was secured abroad and at home. The Royal Exchange and other London Assurance Companies, founded at this time. The government enabled, in 1716, to effect a great reduction in the interest and principal of the national debt. - - - -	43	5
1720 to 1729.—The reaction in October, 1720, of the South Sea, and other bubble speculations, produced a run upon the goldsmiths, many of whom, with the Sword Blade Company, that also acted as bankers, stopped payment. The Bank of England was again nearly swept away, but again weathered the storm. With the increased demand for money, all securities and every description of property fell in value. Trade was suspended, and the whole nation involved in suffering. It was about this time that the Bank adopted the resolution of maintaining a reserved fund, called "*the Rest*," to make good an occasional deficiency in the dividends to their own shareholders, and for extraoruinary contingencies. George I. dies 1727, and is succeeded by George II. - - - - - - -	37	4

BANK CIRCULATION.

1718 - - - - - - -	£1,829,930
1721 - - - - - - -	2,054,780†

1730 to 1739.—Reign of George II. Peace throughout the first nine years of this period. War with Spain declared in 1739 - -	31	10
1740 to 1749.—Heavy losses by Spanish privateers. Hanoverian wars. War declared against France in 1744. Bank circulation £4,000,000. Charles Edward sails for Scotland, July 14th, 1745, gains two victories, and marches upon Derby, December 4th. *Panic. Run upon the Bank. The Bank obliged to pay in sixpences, and to block up the doors with its own friends, to gain time.* Charles Edward retreats from Derby the same week, and is finally defeated at Colloden, April 6th, 1746. Peace with France and Spain, by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, proclaimed 1749. - - - - - - -	31	8

Mr. Francis tells us of this period, that

"The day on which the news arrived that the rebels were at Derby, was known in London as Black Friday. The gates of the city were shut. The train bands were placed on duty night and day. The guards were ordered out. The Tower was closed before its time. The shops were unopened, and no business was done excepting at the Bank. Many of the inhabitants collected their valuables and fled from the country."

It was in the midst of a similar panic that Charles Edward had entered Edinburgh without a shot being fired. The retreat of his army, forced upon him by the Highland chiefs against his own bitter remonstrances, saved the crown by saving the Bank. The Highland chiefs did not know how much the principle of *immediate and absolute convertibility* would have befriended their cause. The stoppage of the Bank, that would have followed upon the next three days' march towards London, would have added such intensity to the demand for money, that no effective force could have been collected by the government, or long maintained. Yet, at this time, there were no notes in circulation under £20; and with

* Francis's "History of the Bank," p. 99. † "History of the Bank," by J. M'Cay.

our then double standard, the bank had the option of paying either in gold or silver. We shall presently see what became, in a similar crisis, of the principle of immediate convertibility, when the Bank was required to pay in gold only.

Period of Ten years.	Average price of Wheat per Qr. of 8 bushels.
	s. d.
1750 to 1759.—The 4 per cents. reduced to 3½, (1750.) The Bank lend government £1,400,000, at 3 per cent., (1752.) War declared against France, (1756.) The 3½ per cents. reduced to 3 per cent., (1757.) £10 and £15 bank notes first issued, (1759.) - - -	37 5
1760 to 1769.—Bank circulation, 1761, £6,001,810. George II. dies, and is succeeded by George III., 1760. National debt, at the peace of 1762, £146,682,843. A commercial crisis at Amsterdam and Hamburg, and numerous bankruptcies in both cities. The pressure relieved by advances from England to solvent houses,* 1763. Dearth of corn, and distress from the high price of provisions, 1768. The first issue of *paper roubles* (3*s.* 3*d.*) by the Russian Government the same year.† The gold and silver coins having become deficient in weight, bullion rises in price. Gold sold at £4 2*s.* per oz., silver, 5*s.* 10*d.*, 1769.‡ Average price of wheat for the last five years, 48*s.* 5*d.* per quarter, for the ten years. - - - - -	41 4½
1770 to 1779.—Continued bad harvests. At the close of 1772, the light coin called in, and re-issued at full weight. *Extensive failures and a monetary panic*, followed by a crisis still more severe on the continent, especially in Holland and France. The Bank at this period maintaining the convertibility of its notes by a loss, according to Adam Smith, of from 2½ to 3 per cent. for several years, on an average of £850,000 per annum, the amount of bullion it was compelled to purchase and get coined. (This was to meet the run upon the new heavy guineas, which went abroad, like the new shillings of William III., and for the same reason.) In the year 1774, were passed the coercion bills, with which originated the first war with our American colonies; and in the same session *the act for the adoption of a gold standard*, (14 George III., c. 42,) by which silver was disallowed as a legal tender for sums exceeding £25. Average harvests from 1775 to 1778, and an unusually abundant crop in 1779. Bank circulation same year, August 31, £7,276,540. - - - -	49 0

The substitution of a gold standard for our ancient double standard of gold and silver, appears to have attracted little public attention, as a subject upon which few had thought, and therefore one upon which those who could talk learnedly were allowed to legislate in their own way. The reasons assigned for the change were the variations in the relative value of the two metals, and the practical inconvenience of having continually to adjust their relative prices. This was an argument for a single standard, although one which appears to us of very secondary importance, but not a reason for adopting the dearer metal as a standard rather than the cheaper. The argument for this was, that if the dearer metal were made to govern the price of the cheaper, there would be no variations in the relative price of either. The answer is, that although the variations would not be apparent, they would be as real as before; and that, as all experience proves that the tendency of silver is to fall in value relatively to gold, from a more rapid rate of increase, the change was certain to give to the creditor the advantage which had hitherto been enjoyed by the debtor, who, having had the choice of paying in silver or gold, of course paid with the metal most easily procured. But this is a point of but little moment, compared with the obvious fact that in choosing the dearer metal for our single standard, we necessarily augmented the chances of monetary disturbance. The proportion of value of silver to gold is as 1 to 15,

* "History of the Bank," by Mr. Francis.

† Macpherson's "Annals of Commerce," iv. 8. The difference between the paper rouble and the silver rouble, was but 3 per cent. for nine years; but the subsequent unlimited issues of the Russian government during the war, reduced the paper rouble to one fourth only of the value of that of silver.

‡ Wade's "British Chronology."

but the proportion of *quantity* of silver to gold existing in the world is supposed to be as 50 to 1.* In the proportion, therefore, of 3½ to 1, the difference between a silver and a gold standard, and greatly beyond that by the difference between a single and a double standard, did we, in 1774, increase the disability of the nation to meet a new and sudden demand for metallic money, with an immediate and commensurate supply.

Let it be understood—and it is important that this should be generally known—the principle adopted in 1774, of allowing nothing as a legal tender but the rarest and dearest of metals, was an entirely new rule of administration in the history of nations. The ancient Roman standard was copper;† and in modern times a tender of silver, or of either silver or gold, has been held by the common law of mankind to be a legal discharge of contract debts. We stand alone, with the exception of Portugal, as the only civilized community in the world that exacts from a debtor for every pound a prescribed weight of gold, even though it cost him a pound of flesh. Upon this new, and to our thinking, most perilous experiment, we entered,—when? Upon the eve of the outbreak of those civil convulsions which shook Europe to its center, and when we were about to add £700,000,000 to the national debt, within the life-time of the then reigning monarch.

Period of Ten years.	Average price of Wheat per Qr. of 8 bushels.
	s. d.
1780 to 1789.—New York surrendered to Washington by Lord Cornwallis, 1781. The independence acknowledged of the thirteen United States, December 1782. *Tallies* finally abolished, 1783. Pitt introduces his plan for a sinking fund, 1786. Commercial treaty with France, 1787. The States-General of France assembled May 5, 1789. The following harvest deficient, and a great dearth of corn in France. -	49 10½
1790 to 1799.—First issue of *assignats* by the Constituent Assembly of France, April 19, 1790. Louis XVI. beheaded Jan. 21, 1793. The next week England declares war against France, and joins the coalition. *Drain of gold. The Bank contracts its discounts.* Feb. 19.—*One house fails for nearly one million pounds. Panic. Failures throughout the country. Universal hoarding. Upwards of one hundred country banks stop payment.* The following April a committee of the House recommend an advance to merchants, on securities, of £5,000,000 Exchequer bills. The panic subsiding on this announcement, and on an extension of discounts, £2,202,200 only advanced; all ultimately repaid.‡ £5 Bank notes first issued the same month. *General fall of prices from* 1792 *to* 1794.§ Robespierre beheaded July 27, 1794. The issue of *assignats* augmented in 1796 to the nominal amount of £182,316,000, exclusive of the forged imitations said to have been circulated by Pitt. The whole become waste paper The same year Buonaparte overruns Italy. Some French troops land in Wales from a frigate driven on the coast. *Alarm of invasion. Discontent in the fleet; subsequently breaking out into open mutiny. Drain of gold. The Bank contracts its circulation from* £10,824,150, *March*, 1796, *to* £8,640,250, *February* 27, 1797. *The next day an order in Council commands the Bank to suspend specie payments.* Bullion left February 28, £1,086,170. March 4, £1 and £2 notes first issued. The same year the 4*s.* 2*d. dollar* re-stamped, and issued at 4*s.* 9*d.* Three deficient harvests in this period. Gazette averages of wheat, January, 1799, 49*s.* 6*d.* Windsor averages for the ten years - - - - - - - - - - -	62 1½

Three-and-twenty years only have elapsed since the adoption of an exclusive gold standard, and we find it has broken down. We have now a new standard of *inconvertible* paper, supported by the joint credit of a wealthy corporation and that of the State. The origin of the distrust of this paper, and the apprehen-

* Bullion Report. Allen's evidence of 1810.

† The *as*, or *pondo*, (whence the word *pound*,) coined into twelve parts or *unciæ*, 550 years before Christ. The silver *denarius* was first coined 250 years before Christ. The gold *aureus* 204 years before Christ.

‡ "History of the Bank," by J. Francis. Vol. i., 216.

§ Tooke, vol. i., page 178.

sions of the bullionists, will be seen in the fate of the French assignats. The result, however, was not the same in both cases, and it is important to point out the reason. Wherein did the *English* assignats differ from the inconvertible notes of the French Constituent Assembly? The difference was in this—not in the form of note, for forms are immaterial, but in the principle of their issue. The French assignats were *given away** by the government in payment of its own expenditure; the English assignats were *lent* only, and *lent at interest*, upon securities for the return of the original notes, with the interest in addition.

It is extraordinary that this most essential distinction should not have been detected by the bullionist writers of the time, or if detected, that they should still have reasoned then, as the advocates of convertibility for the most part reason now, as if there were no difference between the accommodation bill of a swindler and the promissory note of a Rothschild; and upon the sage maxim, that paper money is always paper money, and therefore to be regarded as the object of a vague terror, no matter what the conditions of limitation, and the check imposed upon excessive issues.

Observe the operation of the check in the case of the assignats of the Bank of England. The Bank could not have issued £180,000,000 of these notes, because the public would not have been willing or able to pay £9,000,000 per annum for the use of them, and because, if willing, it could not have found £189,000,000 to deposit *in securities* for the re-payment of capital and interest. And observe further that the check *now* upon excessive issues of Bank of England notes is not convertibility, (excepting at a moment of drain,) but the provision made for recalling the same notes at average intervals of three months, with interest for the use of them during that period. In ordinary times, the interest of a bill discounted at the Bank of England, is paid with the notes of the Bank of England, as during the Restriction Act—not with gold. And this does not at all interfere with the operation of interest as a check, because *the principle of the check is the receiving more back than was paid out.* The present regulation of this check is, however, imperfect; and it was imperfect during the war, for a reason we have already pointed out,—the difference between a *nominal* and a *real* rate of interest. The tax paid for the use of paper money should be governed by the return of capital, as measured by a general average of commodities—not by gold alone. In other words, nominal rates of interest should rise with the nominal prices of commodities, (not fall, as under our present system.) *Paper money issued only upon securities, and at rates of interest so regulated, could never be issued in excess.*

We may here afford a smile at that total oblivion of history which enables a certain class of writers, and writers not always of the least pretensions, to declaim upon the *impossibility* of an inconvertible currency in a commercial country. The past is lost upon them. The Spanish Armada, fitted out with gold, was defeated by the impoverished exchequer of Elizabeth, with *wooden tallies.* A life and death struggle with the armies of Napoleon was maintained for twenty years with *English assignats*, and those very assignats, or inconvertible bank notes, *bought the gold* which, in 1819, enabled the Bank of England to resume cash payments.

1798.—Rebellion in Ireland.

1799.—The Duke of York capitulates and abandons Holland to the French. Fall in the prices of transatlantic produce, coincident with a rise in the price of corn. Numerous failures in the commercial towns of Bremen, Amsterdam, Frankfort, Hamburgh, &c., extending also to Liverpool. In Hamburgh the rate of discount raised to 15 per cent., and 82 merchants there stop payment for £2,500,000. *The pressure at Liverpool relieved by a government advance of* £500,000 *in Exchequer Bills.*†

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* This does not apply to the first issue of the Constituent Assembly in 1790, which was limited to £2,500,000, and which the government received back again in the taxes, and in payment of the confiscated estates sold by auction. The subsequent excessive issues, without any provision for withdrawing any portion from circulation as they fell in value, were in the days of the *National Convention*, and the first *Legislative Assembly*, bodies both of them constituted of inferior elements to those which formed the *Constituent Assembly*. The notes of Law's bank, 28 years before, became depreciated in a similar manner. The Regent borrowed and paid them away at his own discretion: and the Bank, though it advanced them at interest, took false securities for the payment—the security of a bankrupt government, and the fictitious values of Mississippi bonds.

† Tooke's "History of prices," vol. I., p. 233.

	s.	d.
1800 to 1819.—1800. Union with Ireland, (39 and 40 George III., c. 67.) Two deficient harvests, and a great foreign demand for corn, partly occasioned by the war. Price of wheat, March, 1801, 156*s*. 2*d*. per quarter. Falls at the close of the next year to 57*s*. 1*d*. Peace of Amiens in 1802. The war renewed, 1803. Price of wheat falls to 49*s*. 6*d*., March, 1804. A prohibitory duty imposed the same year of 24*s*. 3*d*. per quarter on the importation of wheat, when the price should be under 63*s*. The 4*s*. 2*d*. dollar re-stamped, and issued at 5*s*. Threats of invasion. A flotilla assembled at Boulogne by Napoleon. Arming of the militia, 1805. Martello towers erected along the coast; battle of Austerlitz; and death of Nelson in the naval victory of Trafalgar. The Berlin decrees of Napoleon interdict the commerce of England with the continent, 1806. England retaliates, 1807, by prohibiting the trade of neutral vessels. Russia closes its ports against England, and Napoleon issues further decrees from Hamburgh and Milan to enforce a strict blockade of the British Islands. Rise of prices in hemp, flax, tallow, Memel timber, silk, wool, and other articles, affected by these decrees; and great speculation in them, extending to copper, lead, and all materials generally of army munitions. 1808.—Great speculation in the shares of new companies. Deficient harvests this and the following year. 1809.—The English retreat from Portugal, and fail in their disastrous expedition to Walcheren. Gold rises to £4 12*s*. per ounce. The bullion committee appointed Francis Horner, chairman. Average price of wheat,	88	7½

The report of the bullion committee, made in the following year, is the most graphic illustration of the Tenterden Steeple fallacy that it would, perhaps, be possible to find in the history of philosophy. It is a report in which the effect of deficient harvests—the effect of a war expenditure exceeding 500,000,000 for the twelve preceding years—the effect of the new Corn Law—the effect of the Berlin and Milan decrees—stand for nothing as disturbing elements of commerce, and the restriction of cash payments alone, is stated to have caused the fall of the exchanges and rise in the price of gold, and also to have led generally to a rise in the price of all commodities. Upon each of these points the report has been ably answered by Mr. Tooke, himself a qualified supporter of the same metallic theory. Mr. Tooke proves—1. That the rise of prices was neither general nor uniform, and that in the two last years, when gold was rising, the reaction of the speculative spirit of 1807 and 1808, caused a general fall in the price of all commodities that had been affected by it.* 2. That for the twelve years following the restriction act, there was only one period of a few months (in 1801 and 1802) during which the price of gold was above £4 per ounce, (the price fixed by the Bank,) or the price of silver higher than it had been during the greater part of the last century; and 3. That the state of the Bank circulation was remarkable for its equability during nearly the whole of this period, and not greater than it would probably have been without a restriction act. Mr. Taylor has also pointed out (a fact overlooked both by Ricardo and Mr. Tooke) that coincidently with the first rapid rise of gold in the autumn of 1808, there was not an expansion, but a great contraction of the circulation.†

	Bank Notes in Circulation.	Price of Gold per oz.
August 21, 1807 - - - -	£19,678,360	4 0 0
" 1808 - - - -	17,111,290	£4 10 0

This is, perhaps, the most decisive evidence that can be offered, as a single fact, of the variableness of gold as a standard of value, and the delusiveness of the modern theory of the foreign exchanges. The fall in the exchanges of this period, that is to say, the lowered value of all bills drawn upon London, was simply occasioned, not by any depreciation of bank paper, in the true sense of the term, but by the enormous excess of those bills in the market, in reference to the demands of a crippled trade,—bills drawn by English officers abroad on army agents at home,

* "History of Prices," vol. i, page 316. Mr. Tooke says that, with the exception of corn, land, and materials of ship building, &c., "all objects of exchange were lower in price in 1810 and 1811 than in 1800; in few instances less than 20 per cent., and in some instances upward of 50 per cent., as measured in paper; while gold had risen 25 per cent.

† "The Minister Mistaken," p. 11.

or bills drawn by foreign powers on the English treasury on account of subsidies. Our subsidies to foreign powers, which for seven years had been inconsiderable, were, in 1808, £2,897,873, and for the seven years, ending 1814, £29,091,989, a very large proportion of which had, through the "continental system" of Napoleon, to be paid in gold.* The subsequent history of the Exchanges is that of bills upon London sometimes rising in price with an increase of the Bank circulation, and some times falling, and falling when the expansion was greatest, viz. in 1814.

1810.—Depression of prices on the recoil of speculation. Extensive failures, and great demand for money. The Bank increases its circulation by £4,500,000. Price of gold falls from £4 11*s.* £4 4*s.* 6*d.*†

1811.—Regency Act passed (Feb. 11.) Immense armies traverse the continent. Gold again rises, and guineas, shillings, and even pence, begin to disappear from the circulation. The 4*s.* 2*d.* dollar issued at 5*s.* 6*d.* The House, to prevent the inconvenience of rents being claimed in gold, adopt a resolution, on the motion of Mr. Vansittart, to the effect that a one-pound note and a shilling shall be a legal tender for a guinea—guineas then selling at 27*s.* in Bank paper.

1812.—Through a succession of four bad harvests at home and abroad, the price of wheat rises in August to 155*s.* per quarter. Price in France 150*s.* per quarter.‡ Wellington victorious in Spain. The French retreat from Moscow (Oct. 19.)

1813.—Average harvest. Wheat falls in Dec. to 73*s.* 6*d.* Gold rises to £5 10*s.* per ounce. General opening of continental ports, and rise of prices of most articles of British export. Napoleon defeated at Leipsic.

1814.—Restoration of the Bourbons (April.)

	Bank Circulation.
28th Feb.	£24,801,080
31st Aug.	28,368,200

	Bullion in the Bank.	Price of Gold.
28th Feb.	£2,204,430	£5 8 0
31st Aug.	2,097,680	4 5 0

1815.—Gold again rises in price on the escape of Napoleon from Elba. Falls after the battle of Waterloo. National Debt, at the close of the year, £856,984,028.§

1816.—Deficient harvest. The pound troy of standard silver coined into 66*s.* A great increase in the foreign trade, but a more than corresponding fall in the prices of Baltic and other produce, now glutting the home market, causes heavy losses and numerous bankruptcies during this and the two preceding years.

	EXPORTS.	
Official Value.	1813	£37,980,977
	1816	57,420,430‖
	IMPORTS.	
"	1813	£24,923,922
	1816	31,822,053

1817.—Savings' bank fund established (57 Geo. III., c. 105 & 130.) Spafield riots. The Bank begin voluntarily to resume cash payments, but are checked by

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* BULLION IN THE BANK OF ENGLAND.

1808. Feb. 28	£7,855,470
" Aug. 31	6,015,940
1809. Feb. 28	4,488,700
" Aug. 31	3,652,480

† Tooke's 'History of Prices,' vol. i., p. 262.

‡ Ibid., vol. i., p. 334.

§ Fourth Report of the Committee on Income and Expenditure.

‖ We have explained, in a former note, but would again draw attention to the fact, that a great part of the now customary excess of exports over imports, is occasioned by the Foreign and Colonial expenditure of Government; for which, of course, there is no return in either money or goods.

Government; the operation of heavy French and Rusian loans, raised at a high rate of interest, having suddenly led to an export of bullion.

	Bank Circulation.	Bullion in the Bank.
Aug. 31 - -	£29,543,780	£11,688,260

1818.—Increased forgeries of bank notes. First coinage of the present Sovereigns containing 5 dwts. 3¼ grs. of gold. Numerous Reform meetings. (About this time the writings of William Cobbett create a general but an erroneous belief in a necessary connexion between bank paper and high prices.)

1819.—Manchester massacre. Resumption of cash payments. 59 Geo. III., c. 49, enacts that on the 1st of May, 1823, all notes of the bank of England shall be payable in gold on demand at £3 17*s.* 10½*d.* per oz. Prior to that period, not to be paid in smaller amounts than the value of 60 oz. at £3 19*s.* 6*d.* till 1st of October, 1831; and not less than 60 oz. at £3 17*s.* 10½*d.* till October, 1823. English as well as foreign coins allowed to be exported, by the same Act. Average price of wheat in 1819, 72*s.*, but through the effect of five deficient harvests during this period, aggravated by the corn laws, the average price of wheat at Windsor for the ten years

s.	*d.*
100	7

It must be said of British statesmen that if they sometimes lack foresight, they are at least never wanting in courage. The new experiment of 1774, of adopting as a single standard the rarest and dearest of the precious metals, had failed after a brief trial, and we find a legislature in 1819 yet bold enough to return to it, and to return to it at a moment of falling markets,—the necessary consequence of a diminishing monopoly of the foreign trade of the world, and a diminishing government expenditure,—and with such an accumulation of debt as the world had never before seen,—a debt of £850,000,000, the dividends of which were now to be paid in gold, and the principal itself, to whatever extent it might please the fundholder to sell, at a moment of distrust, or when tempted by a better investment abroad.

The fallacy which misled the House and the political economists of that day, by whom ministers were influenced, was the comparative cheapness of gold, on the return of peace, when every hoard on the Continent was suddenly released; and the apparent consequent facility of meeting with gold all engagements of Bank paper. But this temporary cheapness was no test at all of what the difficulty might be of obtaining the amount of gold required, when new causes for hoarding it might arise; and surely with the gigantic mass of credit we had then built up, there ought to have been some misgiving of the prudence of risking the public security upon such an improbable contingency as the chance of no new and unexpected demand ever arising for bullion greater than the average quantity that could conveniently be retained in this country. Some alternative of safety against a violent collapse of credit obligations, should at least have been retained until provision had been made for the ultimate extinction of the debt—until the paper which contracted the debt had discharged it—and this, but for the unfortunate state crotchet of convertibility into gold at a fixed price, would have been a matter of very simple financial arrangement. The history of the bullion market, on the peace of 1815, shows that gold was then so rapidly becoming a drug that had it not been for the large purchases of the Bank of England at £4 13*s.* 6*d.* and £4 per oz., with a view to the resumption of cash payments, gold would have fallen below the value of the Bank inconvertible paper; and with Bank notes at a premium, a comparatively trifling bonus would have induced the fundholder to have accepted, in exchange for his perpetual annuities, *terminable and life annuities*, of which some of the youngest among us might have hoped to live long enough to see the last.*

1820.—56 Geo. III., c. 68, provides that silver shall not be a legal tender for more than 40*s.*, instead of, as before, a legal tender for £25. Geo. III. dies, in the 82d year of his age. Cato-street conspiracy.

1821.—Death of Napoleon Bonaparte at St. Helena. Coronation of Geo. IV. and death of Queen Caroline. The Bank pay all demands in gold.

* It should be understood that bank paper was always convertible into gold during the war but that the payment was *optional*, and not at a fixed price. The difference between gold and paper from 1803 to 1809 was but £2 13*s.* 2*d.* per cent. In 1813, £22 16*s.* per cent. The average difference during the last seven years of the war, was about 15 per cent.

1822.—Continued revulsion of prices, the funds excepted, and great commercial depression throughout Europe. The act of 1819 attacked in the House by Mr. Western and Mr. Attwood. The House defers the contemplated abolition £1 notes in 1823. A potato famine in Ireland. Mr. Vansittart reduces the 5 per cents to 4 per cent. Meetings on the subject of agricultural distress.

1823.—Rising prices, improving trade, and falling rates of interest,* towards the close of this year.

1824.—Great speculations in the scrip and shares of foreign loans and new companies.

1825.—The recoil of speculation in the autumn of this year produces an increased demand for money, and *a run upon the London and Country Banks*. Seventy banks in town and country stop payment in the month of December. *A drain of Gold*, consequent upon these stoppages, *exhausts the bullion of the Bank*. The Bank, supported solely by its credit, which remains unimpaired extends its issues of paper by *eight millions in one fortnight*; upon which the panic subsides, and confidence is gradually restored.

BANK RETURNS.

	Circulation.	Bullion.
Feb. 28, 1823	£18,392,240	£10,384,230
28, 1824	19,736,990	13,810,060
28, 1825	20,753,760	8,779,100
Aug. 31, 1825	19,398,840	3,634,320
Dec. 3, 1825	17,477,290	
24, 1825	25,611,800	1,027,000
Feb. 28, 1826	25,467,910	2,459,510
Aug. 31, 1826	21,563,360	6,754,230
Feb. 28, 1827	21,890,610	10,159,020

The drain of bullion appears to have extended (from the evidence of Lord Ashburton) considerably below the point shown in the official returns, even to "a few thousand pounds," but the increased issue of notes quickly enabled the private bankers to return the surplus portion of the gold they had withdrawn. Prior to this, the Directors in their consternation had consulted the Government upon another Restriction Act, which was peremptorily refused. It mattered not; the Directors took upon themselves to return to the principle of issuing inconvertible notes; and the confidence of the public, not in the gold of the Bank, but in its known solvency, carried them through the dilemma.†

The state of the circulation in 1824, proves that if the speculative spirit which then arose had been occasioned by money, it was an excess of *gold* rather than an excess of notes that was in fault. But let us not fall into the common currency mistake of confounding the effect with the cause. Both paper and gold were in excess of the average demand for money; the cause being, that with rising profits the demand for money had diminished. The speculative transactions of the time were conducted through the medium of the *money of account*. The demand for either bank notes or metallic money did not set in till the whole body of speculators became infected with distrust; and then we see how, in a moment, the principle of immediate convertibility into gold, *with no alternative of safety*, involves the prudent and the imprudent—the reckless gambler and plain plodding industry—in one common gulf of ruin.

1826.—Depression of trade throughout the first half of the year. The Government advance £2,000,000 of Exchequer Bills to the Bank. The Bank advance a similar sum to manufacturers, on the security of dock warrants, bills of lading, &c. Trade resumes its accustomed channels.

1827.—7 Geo. IV., c. 6, prohibits the circulation of small notes for sums under £5, after April 5, 1829.

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* 3 per cent. Consols.	Premium on Exchequer Bills.
April 23, 1823....73¼	10s. to 12s.
Jan. 1, 1824....86	51s. to 53s.
" 1825....94¼	68s.

† Including *deposits*, the total of their liabilities to pay gold on demand, exceeded the amount of gold in hand by 30 millions.

1830.—Death of Geo. IV. French Revolution of July. Opening of the Manchester and Liverpool Railway, and death of Mr. Huskisson.

1832.—Cholera ‡ and popular commotions on the rejection of the Reform Bill by the House of Lords, and the accession to office of the Duke of Wellington. Placards about the metropolis "to stop the Duke—go for gold." A run for gold, in consequence, reduces the bullion in the Bank to £4,919,000 Royal assent given to the Reform Bill, June 7th.

1833.—3 and 4 Wm. IV., renews the Bank Charter Act, and allows, for the first time the bills of country banks to be made payable in London. Bank notes to be a *legal tender* for sums above £5, excepting by the Bank itself, or its branches.

1834 to 1837.—Three months' bills exempted from the usury laws by the 3d and 4th Wm. IV., c. 98. Improving prices, and speculations in railway and other share undertakings. President Jackson abolishes, in 1836, the Bank of the United States, and takes measures to establish a metallic currency. Congress reduces the quantity of fine gold in the American *Eagle* from 246 to 232 grains, which raises throughout the United States the value of English sovereigns.* Consequent *drain of gold at the Bank of England*. Alternate *contraction and extension of discounts*, and general commercial derangement at the close of 1836, and the beginning of 1837. American houses the greatest sufferers. Death of William IV., 1837.

BANK RETURNS.

	Circulation.	Bullion.
1834. Jan. 7.	£18,216,000	£9,948,000
Sept. 23.	19,126,000	7,695,000
1835. June 4.	18,460,000	6,150,000
1836. June 28.	17,899,000	7,362,000
Sept. 21.	18,147,000	5,719,000
1837. Feb. 28.	18,165,000	4,077,000

1838 and 1839.—Two deficient harvests. Price of wheat 81*s.* 6*d.* for the second week of January, 1839. Large importations of corn, and consequent *drain of bullion*. The Bank seek to check the drain by contracting its circulation and raising the rate of discount to 5½ per cent., but without effect. Acts upon the exchanges by the creation of accommodation bills to the Amount of £2,500,000, drawn upon the bankers of Paris; for which purpose it pledges securities with the house of Baring.†

1840.—2 & 3 Vict., c. 37, exempts all bills of exchange and loans above £10 on personal securities, from the operation of the usury laws. *Loans upon the security of real property still limited to 5 per cent.*

BANK RETURNS.

	Circulation	Bullion.
1838. April 3.	£18,987,000	£10,126,000
1839. April 2.	18,371,000	7,073,000
Nov. 12.	17,235,000	2,545,000
1840. Jan. 7.	16,366,000	3,454,000

1844.—Renewal of the Bank Charter. The 7 & 8 Vict., c. 32, divides the Bank into two departments, an *Issue department* and a *Banking department*; and limits the amount of Bank paper that may be issued upon other securities than gold to 14 millions. It also limits the issues of country banks, whether upon gold or any other security, to the average of the 12 weeks ending April 27; about £8,000,000.

1845.—The 8th & 9th Vict., c. 37, limits the circulation of Irish banks, and the 8th & 9th Vict., c. 38, limits the circulation of Scotch banks to their then issues. Bank of England notes not to be a legal tender in Scotland.

The three last measures were passed in fair weather times, when in consequence of the improvement of trade the demand for *real* money was diminishing, and business was again transacted through the medium of the *money of account*—gold again a drug, and those who held notes representing it finding a difficulty in plac-

* Tooke's "History of Prices," vol. ii., p. 285.
† Frances' "History of the Bank," vol. ii., p. 121.

ing them at 2½ per cent. The operation of the principle involved in this important distinction between the money of account and real money not having been understood, it was not perceived by the legislature that the mere crippling of banking resources would do literally nothing towards restraining a spirit of commercial enterprise within due limits, but would most fearfully aggravate the evils of its recoil. Let it, however, here be observed that this crippling of banking resources is not a necessary consequence of the mere separation of departments. *That* principle of the Bank Charter we must admit to be a sound one. When we see the failures of men in the position of Governors and Directors of the Bank of England of every day occurrence, we ought surely to pause before intrusting the issue of *State paper money* (meaning thereby notes made a legal tender) to the absolute discretion of any private parties connected with trade. The only defect of the *Issue department* is that of the Mint,—which coins nothing as a legal tender but gold. Give to the *Issue department*, in cases of temporary need, the same power of enlarging the circulation, upon other securities than gold, which the Bank itself formerly enjoyed, and let that power, subject to proper control, be exercised not capriciously at a moment of panic, but systematically and wisely before the panic arrives, and although insolvents could not be upheld, we should hear no more of the *monetary crisis*, in which men of property find themselves on the brink of bankruptcy, and discharged workmen crowding our streets, from a sudden interruption of unexecuted orders, against the misfortune of which no foresight could guard. What hinders? Nothing but the principle of immediate and exclusive gold convertibility, to which such a policy would of course be opposed. Blinded to consequences by this theory, and defying the lessons of all time, we go on regulating our currency in the infatuated spirit of the gaming table,—staking all we possess upon the hazard of a single throw.

1844 and 1845.—Improving prices and expanding confidence in 1844. Gold again becomes a drug. Bullion, in the two departments of the Bank, September 21, £15,158,964. Bank rate of discount, 2½. Speculations in cotton from deficient crops; and speculations in railway shares from the success of the London and Birmingham Company. The following year speculations in railway shares become a mania, by which this country and the whole of Europe is infected. Bullion, June 14, 1845, £16,613,920. The recoil of speculation in the Autumn produces an increased demand for money, and a rapid fall of all railway securities. Bullion, Dec. 20, £13,378,343. *This first panic confined to the railway interest.* Cold and heavy rains in Autumn prevent the ripening of the potatoe root, and the crop proves unsound.

1846.—The corn laws repealed. Railway shares partially recover, and fall. Rally till harvest, and again fall. Bullion, August 29, £16,366,068. Dearth of corn in France. A nearly total failure of the potatoe plant in Ireland from the combined effects of unripe seed and an unusually dry season. A labour rate act passed for the employment of the Irish during the winter. Large importations of corn, and *beginning of a drain of gold.*

1847.—March 1.—The Chancellor of the Exchequer contracts with Messrs. Baring and Rothschilds an Irish loan of £8,000,000, at the rate of £3 7*s.* per cent. The relief measures of the English and French Governments produce an exaggerated demand for corn, and raise the price of produce throughout Europe. The drain of gold increases about the period of the April dividends. £7,000,000 of gold withdrawn in less than six months. The Banking department compelled to refuse discounts, or to make advances upon Government stock, or even silver bullion. Money suddenly becomes excessively dear. *Panic and universal mercantile depression.* Gazette averages of wheat for the week ending May 29, 102*s.* 5*d.*; for the week ending Sept. 18, 49*s.* 6*d.* This rapid fall, and the simultaneous anxiety of holders of corn, holders of cotton, and holders of railway shares to realize, and the directors of new railways to complete their lines by making heavy calls, produce an unexampled demand for money. The Foreign Exchanges improve; but private bankers, in alarm, increasing their cash reserves, *the drain of gold continues.* To provide for the October dividends, the Bank is again compelled to refuse loans and discounts, and this time more peremptorily than before. Private bankers imitating their example, a total collapse ensues of all commercial credit depending upon the negotiability of Bills of Exchange. Forced sales, in consequence, of Consols

and every description of security; and a series of failures unequelled in amount at any similar crisis recorded in British history.

Oct. 25.—A letter from Lord John Russell and Sir Charles Wood to the governor and deputy-governor of the Bank, *virtually suspending the provisions of the Bank Charter Act*, and recommending an enlargement of its circulation at a rate of discount *not less than eight per cent.* The Bank acting upon this, the severity of the crisis abates; private bankers release their surplus reserves, while at the same time, from the continuing distrust of English bills, bullion flows in from abroad with unusual rapidity.

Nov. 23.—The first session of a new Parliament opened by Royal commission. The House extends the time for making railways; appoints a committee to consider and report upon the state of the currency, and adjourns for the holidays. Bank Rate of discount reduced from 8 to 7, and from 7 to 6 per cent. during the month.

Dec. 23.—The minimum rate of discount at the Bank reduced to five per cent. All commercial and manufacturing operations continuing limited up to this date, and railway works almost entirely suspended.

*** Bullion in the two departments Dec. 4, £11,032,599, of which amount £4,783,065 could not be withdrawn by the Banking Department under the provisions of the Bank Charter Act.

BANK RETURNS.

Banking Department.

	Liabilities in Deposits and seven days' bills.	Cash reserve.
1844. Sept. 21	£14,778,345	£9,540,804
1845. June 14	17,552,981	10,551,420
1846. Aug. 29	17,189,760	9,939,938
1847. April 17	13,925,799	3,087,056
" Oct. 23	14,301,916	1,994,516
" Dec. 4	17,126,533	6,249,534

In closing this curious, and we trust it will be found useful historical digest of the contents of some hundred volumes, there are three things which may perhaps especially attract our notice, while they leave upon the mind an impression of wonder. First, the fact that the principle of exclusive convertibility into *gold*, which, from the self-complacent dogmatism with which it has been supported, the public has been led to imagine was as old as the hills, is discovered to be an entirely new experiment, of which every trial has been attended with disaster, and of which the British nation has never yet had the continuous experience of four-and-twenty years! Second, that although the *inconvertible* paper of the Bank bought back the gold which enabled it to resume cash payments in 1821, when the rate of discount was limited by law to £5 per cent., it should in these days have been considered necessary by Government, and at a moment of excessive depreciation in the value of all commodities relatively to money, to raise the *minimum* rate of discount to 8 per cent. to secure a return of bullion. Third, that a body of legislators approving of such ruinous rates as a temporary expedient, and impressed with a belief that railway calls are nearly the sole cause of our present embarrassments, should meet and dissolve, without even one thought of the expediency of repealing that last portion of the usury laws which still prohibits Railway Companies, and the owners generally of lands and houses borrowing money upon the security of *real property* at a rate of interest exceeding 5 per cent.!

We conclude by calling upon the members of the new Currency Committee to consider the order in which their inquiry should be conducted in reference especially to those interests of the country which are at the present moment placed in the most immediate jeopardy.

Assuming the fact—about which there has been no controversy—that the engagements of the existing body of railway shareholders are beyond their means,

we would suggest the importance of proceeding at once to the question of—whether the nation itself is in a similar position? If there be no evidence of any deficiency of capital nationally, but on the contrary, the most conclusive proofs of a more than average abundance of food, and all the materials of labor, we would then urge upon the Committee the duty of devising some plan,—with or without a departure from the principle of convertibility, by which the national capital may be rendered available for setting the railway laborer again to work, and staying that useless waste and destruction of property now going forward, for which we must all pay in the end.

This—their first and most serious obligation discharged, we would recommend to their consideration the following propositions; a concise summary of thewhole of the preceding argument.

First—*That a given quantity of any one commodity, such as gold, or any two commodities, such as gold and silver, or gold and paper, subject to a variable demand, is a delusive criterion of value; one which in all ages has operated unequally and mischievously in the adjustment of contracts, and led more than any other cause that can be named, to the proverbial vicissitudes of trade.*

Second—*That the only true standard of value is that which is obtained by the comparison of general averages; and that the issues of all notes, or coins, allowed to be circulated as a legal tender, should be regulated by such a standard and such an standard alone.**

NO. 2.—THE TRADE AND COMMERCIAL PROSPECTS OF GREAT BRITAIN.

London, 2d March, 1848.

To J. D. B. De Bow, Esq.

The aspect of commercial affairs in England at the present moment, though far from being promising, is not so really deplorable as might reasonably have been anticipated. A want of business and an equal want of confidence show themselves too often in the markets. Sales are effected, but they are very limited, and whatever the kind of business "done," it lacks the appearance of that security which hitherto has especially been the property of the British Market. Any depression in the commercial interests of England is naturally regarded with more than ordinary degree of mistrust; this arises from the high and safe position our markets have held in the eyes of other nations, and not wishing for the destruction of *that* "credit," immediately fills the mind perhaps, with more alarm than the state of monetary and other affairs warrant. It is clear, however, in the sight of every attentive commercial man, that our funds are lower than they were, that a great portion of the confidence that should exist between buyers and sellers, is destroyed, and that in fact the entire system is in a state of complete disorganization. As far as it is possible in the present article, we shall point out the main causes from which this state of things have arisen, although our limits will preclude us from entering into any very minute analysis of the question.

From whatever point we view the case, we instantly revert to the circumstance of Railway Speculation being the groundwork upon which the fabric is raised. Not only is public security a little damaged by the appearance of these bubbles, but any capital that honestly might be embarked in the enterprise, is now fast locked up, bidding fair to continue so, until some salutary measure is introduced, that will act as a relief to the pressure, hence arises to a certain extent the dulness that is so prevalent. This has made buyers of every shade, extremely careful in their purchases, and as a consequence of this, the funds have gradually declined,

* The value of money, *per se*, and the value of capital generally, would then accurately correspond, instead of continually varying, as under the present system. For example,—suppose it to be agreed that the average return of capital is in this country fairly represented by a dividend of £3 upon £96 of Consols. If consols rose to £100 and other commodities rose in the same proportion, it would prove that money (not capital) was in excess; and it would in such case be the duty of a *national* bank to raise the rates of discount upon notes, and to stop all further issues of coin by the mint. If, on the other hand, the prices of commodities generally fell below the average return to capital, and Consols were, say at £80, proving an increased demand for money, it would then be the duty of a national bank to lower its rates of interest upon loans and discounts, extending its issues of paper upon unexceptionable securities, and at the same time exending the supply of mint coins.

to speak in average numbers from 93 to 83. The recent disturbances in France, have also operated fearfully, the three per cents having in one day fallen 6 per cent. This was upon the arrival of the news that a Republic had been declared, yet with all this, a prudent speculator would sell, rather than buy: for although there is no immediate prospect of matters becoming worse, still, the mere disadvantage of having capital lying dormant for a year or two, is no desirable achievement. The effect that this has had upon trade generally has been serious, for although of late no large houses of note have failed, the breaking up has penetrated into the smaller and less wealthy tradesmen. This class, unable to stand the least pressure, succumb directly, their affairs become in every way deranged. By the bye, the Commissioners of the Bankruptcy Courts are beginning to take serious notice of the fraudulent dealings adopted to obtain certificates (of which a great many have recently been brought to light,) by suspending the proceedings for one, two or three years in accordance with the flagrancy of the case.

We are much interested in the late proceedings with reference to the currency question as chiefly elicited in the debate in the House of Commons on the Bank Charter act. Our readers may remember that when the act was first brought into operation it was under circumstances of a most disadvantageous nature, for until a few months ago, there has not been seen such an expansion of credit either for the importation of corn or the construction of public works, nor so great an inability on the part of the commercial world to fulfill its engagements, so that really its introduction was at a most unfortunate moment, and no provision could be made to meet these exigencies, because they were not only entirely unexpected, but impossible to be foretold. It was no deficiency of circulation which caused the Panic, and as a proof of this, reference may be made to the fact that the amount of provincial bank notes in circulation had not been reduced to any material extent. The amount of English Bank notes in circulation in the month of August and September, 1847, was only £200,000, which was £250,000 below the amount actually in circulation during the corresponding months of 1846, whilst the circulation was upwards of one million below the legal limit of their issues. In Scotland there was scarcely any difference between the circulation in the months of August and September, 1846, and August and September, 1847. The only country notes which were considerably lower in point of circulation in August and September last, than in the corresponding months of last year, are the country bank notes of Ireland, but there no commercial failures had occurred up to that time, and indeed throughout the times of the pressure, the Bank of England have refused to discount any bills which at any other period it would have discounted. Perhaps a high and advanced rate of discount was demanded, but from the commencement of the the year up to the close of 1847, they did not refuse to discount any bill which came under the usual rules observed by them under ordinary circumstances. Now as far as it can be judged from events that have since taken place, it is fair to presume that the failure of the crops causing an increased outlay for corn was a material cause of the Panic; this added to the constant scheaming in the markets; (in these quarters denominated "pigging") went far to create the evil. The official returns show that from June, 1846, to the 5th of January, 1847, the cost of corn was £5,139,476. The quantity imported from January to July 5, 1847 was £14,184,000 and again the cost of corn imported from July 5 to October 10th, (three months,) was £14,240,000—thus proving that the charge for the quarter ending the 10th October was about that of the previous half year. During those three months the pressure in the money market was the most heavily felt, consequently we are justified in attributing the cause of the scourge to the great amount namely £33,563,476 paid for foreign corn in the interval of one year and a quarter. In allusion to what we have already stated as regards Railway Speculation being a cause of the Panic, it may be as well to state a few statistics with reference to the assertion. In the year 1841, 1842 and 1843, the amount sanctioned to be expended was in each year about £4,500,000, in 1844 it was £9,815,000; in the last half of that year it was £26,670,000, in the first half of that year, 1847, it was £25,770,000, and if the expenditure should proceed in the same increasing ratio, the amount sanctioned to be expended for the half year ending the 31 December, 1847 amounted to £38,000,000—of course this sum does not include any portion of the preliminary expenses. It is consequently evident that on account of the Railways alone the amount of available to be abstracted from other purposes during the last year (inclusive of expenses) is not less than from eighty to ninety millions.

The *Bank act* doubtless was the cause of many failures of houses which otherwise would have remained solvent. We have taken the list in order as they are presented by the balance sheets of the various banks, and from the whole, there are scarcely any who may be considered really bad, while at the same time there are about a dozen who will, and indeed are in progress of paying twenty shillings in the pound. If this be admitted, surely these houses should not have been compelled to suspend payment, and the same may be said of those who will pay from fifteen to eighteen shillings in the pound, and who would have been able to have paid all their creditors in full and have a balance left if not compelled to throw their stock upon the market to sell for whatever it would fetch. It cannot be regarded as any other than an anomaly to allege that it is for the benefit of commerce that houses should be thus pulled down. The list is as follows:

Stopped. 1847.		Names and Business.	Liabilities.	Assets.
Aug.	6	Charles Douglas and Son, corn trade	—	—
	9	E. Robinson (deceased,) Mauritius trade	—	—
	10	Leslie, Alexander, and Co. corn trade	£573,502	£231,869
	11	Coventry and Sheppard, ditto	—	—
	11	King, Melvil, and Co., ditto	—	—
	13	Giles, Son, and Co., ditto	152,824	90,911
	21	W. R. Robinson, and Co., merchants	94,363	100,390
	23	Castellian, Sons, and Co., merchants	69,651	33,603
	27	W. and J. Woodley, corn trade	99,509	90,845
Sept.	4	T. Booker, Sons, and Co., ditto	—	—
	10	Thomas Usborne and Son, ditto	59,457	33,527
	10	Hastie and Hutchinson, ditto	50,451	38,796
	11	Gower, Nephews, and Co., Mauritius trade	450,832	112,831
	11	Alison, Cumberledge, and Co., South American trade	—	—
	14	Sanderson and Co., discount brokers	1,725,000	—
	17	Reid, Irving, and Co., Mauritius trade	660,432	846,756
	25	Cockerell, Larpent, and Co., East India trade	619,393	809,254
	27	Cockburn and Co., army agents	—	—
	27	M. L. Bensusan and Co., Mogadore and Barbary merchants	52,016	6,951
	28	Perkins, Schlusser, and Mullens, Baltic and East India trade	127,327	136,047
	29	Fry, Griffiths, & Co., India and colonial brokers	90,970	19,231
	30	Lyall, Brothers, and Co., East India trade	340,387	151,556
	30	Samuel Phillips and Co., ditto	101,474	100,075
	30	William Tulloch Fraser, ditto	33,665	40,297
Oct.	4	Rougement Brothers, merchants	—	—
	4	John Thomas, Sons, and Lefevre, ditto	401,760	441,972
	7	F. J. Van Zeller, ditto	—	—
	9	Richards, Little, and Co., East India trade	144,676	50,430
	10	E. Bernoulli, merchant	—	—
	10	Manoel J. Soares, ditto	—	—
	11	Jas. & W. Morley, Manchester warehousemen	119,731	89,217
	12	William Nash, ditto	—	—
	13	Barclay Brothers, and Co., Mauritius trade	389,504	398,491
	15	Laurence, Philips, and Sons, East India trade	18,368	64,840
	17	F. Barnes, and Co., ironmongers	—	—
	23	Scott, Bell, and Co., East India trade	—	—
	27	J. P. Howard, and Co., Colonial brokers	—	—
Nov.	1	Coates and Hilliard, American merchants	72,057	35,462
	2	L. S. Curtis, hide trade	—	—
	6	Judah, Cohen, and Sons, West India merchants	—	—
	8	Thurburn and Co., East India trade	109,139	139,604
	8	Johnson, Cole, and Co., ditto	112,666	71,844
	10	Ryder, Wienholt, and Co., merchants	34,587	23,670
	12	Abbott, Nottingham & Co., shawl warehousemen	—	—
	15	Trueman and Cook, colonial brokers	—	—

Stopped. 1847.	Names and Business.	Liabilities.	Assets.
Nov. 16	Robert Farrand, corn factor - - -	—	—
22	J. and H. Reay, wine merchants - - -	47,791	13,510
22	A. A. Lackersteen, East India trade - -	178,115	80,742
22	Lackersteen, Crake, and Co., ditto - -	37,555	25,251
25	Tanner and Ward, leather factors - -	22,000	8,000
28	Sargent, Gordon, and Co., produce brokers -	—	—
28	Leaf, Barnett, Scotson, & Co., warehousemen	85,575	89,079
Dec. 2	W. Pemberton and Co., Canada merchants -	—	—
2	Charles Trueman and Co., merchants - -	—	—
9	Gates, Coates, Bartlett, & Co., Calico printers	13,000	2,000
11	Lysaght, Smithett, and Co., East India trade	—	—

It will be accounted perfectly legitimate, if in this article we give a brief summary of the transactions of the Saving Banks during the past year. I believe your readers will concur that the chief design of these Banks was to receive small contributions from the industrious classes, therefore some judgment may be formed of the condition of that sect of people from the official returns. According to these statements the total amount of the balance of each class of the depositors stands thus:

	20th November, 1846.	20th November, 1847.
Balances not exceeding £20 each	£138,884	£140,329
do between £20 and £50,	328,950	314,909
do between 50 and 100,	397,260	344,712
do between 100 and 150,	267,374	213,037
do between 150 and 200,	203,729	150,860
do exceeding 200	12,884	8,831
Totals on 20th November, 1846 and 1847,	1,349,081	1,172,678
Total on 20th November, 1847,	1,172,678	
Decrease on 1847,	176,403	

The difference in the amounts of the above balance on the 20th November, 1847, and on the 20th November, 1846, is thus shown:

	On 20th November, 1847 Increase.	Decrease.
Balances not exceeding £20 each,	1,445	—
do between £20 and £50 each,	—	14,041
do do 50 and 100	—	52,548
do do 100 and 150	—	54,337
do do 150 and 200	—	52,869
do exceeding 200 each,	—	4,053
	1,445	177,848
Increase,		1,445
Balance decrease,		176,403

The proportions which the above increase and decrease in the total amounts of the balance on the 20th November, 1847, bear to the total amounts of the balances on the 20th November, 1846, will be found as follows:

	On 20th November, 1847. Increase.	Decrease.
Balances exceeding £200 each,	"	one-third
do between 150 and 200 each,	"	one-fourth
do do 100 and 150	"	one-fifth
do do 50 and 100	"	one-seventh
do do 20 and 50	"	one-twenty-third
do not exceeding one ninety-six		

Again, according to the same, the total number of depositors in each class on the 20th November, 1846, and the 20th November, 1847, stood thus:

	20th Nov., 1846.	20th Nov., 1847.
Depositors respective balances did not exceed £20 each,	18,974	19,792
do do were between £20 and 50 "	10,546	10,123
do do " 50 and 100 "	5,698	4,955
do do " 100 and 150 "	2,204	1,763
do do " 150 and 200 "	1,187	880
do do exceeded 200 each,	44	30
Totals on 20th November, 1846 and 1847,	38,653	37,543
Total on 20th November, 1847,	37,543	
Decrease in 1847,	1,110	

The difference in the numbers of the above classes of depositors on the 20th November, 1847, and on 20th November, 1846, is thus shown?

	On 20th Nvember, 1847.	
	Increase.	Decrease.
Depositors whose respective balances did not exceed £20 each,	818	—
do do were between 20 and 50 "		423
do do " 50 and 100 "		743
do do " 100 and 150 "		441
do do " 150 and 200 "		307
do do exceeded 200 each.		14
Totals on 20th November, 1847,	818	1,928
Increase,		818
Balance, decrease,		1,110

The proportions which the above increase and decrease in the total number of depositors in each class on the 20th November, 1847, bear to the total number of depositors, in each class, on the 20th November, 1846, will be found to be as follows:

	On 20th November, 1847.	
	Increase.	Decrease.
Depositors whose respective balances exceeded £200 each,		one-third.
do do were between 150 and 200 each		one-third.
do do " 100 and 150 "		one-fifth.
do do " 50 and 100 "		one-seventh.
do do " 20 and 50 "		one-twenty-fourth.
do do did not exceed 20 each,		one-twenty-third.

I will now generalize my remarks, and add a kind of running commentary of the state of the English markets for the last week or ten days. It was generally supposed that upon the commencement of the new year, trade would have revived a little, but now it is difficult to discover in what branch of business symptoms of improvement are likely to be of long standing. The partial relief given in consequence of the somewhat easier tone of the money markets, has been naturally alluded to wherever any attempt is made to speculate upon the future, whilst the fact that most articles of produce are much lower in value than at this time last year, might seem to afford some inducement to purchasers. The supplies of corn

of the various mercantile markets are not by any means large, and the stock held by merchants and dealers is less than ordinary Last year's panic, coupled with the many underhanded practices on the Corn Exchange will not tend to an improvement. It is stated that in Manchester, Leeds, Wakefield, and a few other grain markets, that the demand for most articles has been rather languid, although wheat was at a more advanced price. Barley, Beans and Peas, were rather on the decline, but Oats remained much as usual. I give the quotations as included in the official programme:

Wheat. Essex and Suffolk red, 44*s* to 46*s*; fine, 47*s* to 49*s* per quarter; new, 40*s* to 44*s*; fine 46*s*; white old, 44*s* to 48*s*; fine, 50*s* to 54*s*; Talavera new, 52*s* to 56*s*; Foreign, 48*s* to 52*s*; fine, 54*s* to 56*s*.

Flour, per sack, Town, 46*s* to 49*s*; Seconds, 43*s* to 45*s*; Essex and Suffolk on the ship, 41*s* to 43*s*.

Oats per quarter, English feed, 19*s* to 20*s*; fine, 20*s* to 21*s*; Poland, 22*s* to 23*s*; fine, 23*s* and 24*s*; Scotch Potatoe, 25*s* to 26*s*; fine, 1*s* more; Scotch feed, 22*s* to 23*s*; fine, 1*s* more; Irish Potatoe, (old) 20*s* to 21*s*; new-fine, 21*s* to 22*s*; Feed, 17*s* to 18*s*; Black, 19*s* to 20*s*; Foreign feed, 18*s* to 19*s*; Poland, 23*s* to 24*s*; fine, 1*s* more

Sugar is slowly on the decline as regards Mauritius and British Plantation perhaps one shilling a cwt. Foreign and East India growth holds its place. Brown grocery is about 53*s* cwt. Coffee would rise if the Home dealers were inclined to purchase, there being on the part of the exporters some desire to negotiate; but as the former are very lukewarm, a slight decrease has taken place, but nothing remarkable in amount.

The funds have received a sudden shock in consequence of the riots in Paris, in one day, as I have already observed, falling as much as 5 and 6 per cent. as each edition of the London newspapers reached the exchange, so is the rise or fall in stocks correspondingly felt. The first decline took place on the confirmation of the fact that the King of the French had been compelled to leave his kingdom, and immediately on it becoming generally rumored, and the report substantiated, that a Republic had been declared, as well as a Provisional government appointed, a more decided fall took place. The undecided state of Belgium has added also to the confusion, and as quickly as any intelligence reaches this metropolis and gains credence among the brokers, it is astonishing to witness the instantaneous effect upon the money market. Railways are in a dreadful condition; in many of the answering lines, shares may be had for nothing. Holders endeavor to free themselves from the responsbilities they have incurred, little dreaming of the course that events have lately taken. Meetings of shareholders are being convened throughout the city, in the hope of arriving at some satisfactory decision, the general feeling being however in favor of a general postponement of all lines in course of progress.

Your readers have doubtless heard that in the Revenue of this country there is a great deficiency on the last year, added to what the ministry have deemed it expedient to add to the security of the "National Defences" by incrasing the military and Naval establishments. To meet the additional expenditures that such a proceeding would of course incur, and likewise to replenish our almost empty treasury, it was deemed advisable to increase the Income Tax from 3 to 5 per cent. I need scarcely tell you the intimation was received with great disaprobation, both in Parliament, and out of it. The lord Mayor, many clergymen and members of Parliament convened public meetings, and made speeches against the ministerial proposition. So strong and determined were the people in their manifestations of dislike to the new impost, that the Chancellor of the exchequer on the part of the ministry, announced the other evening in the House of Commons that the additional tax would be abandoned.

A considerable degree of agitation is being most energetically made by the Liverpool mercantile men in order to obtain a reduction of the duties on Tea. It has been proven that on account of the exorbitant duty on this article, our trade with China is decreasing annually; for instance the *exports* in cotton manufacturies declined between 1845 and 1846 from £1,745,141 to £1,246,518 in value. Woolens in the same period from £539,223 to £439,668. In addition to this it appears that the committee appointed by Parliament have reported that the aggregate loss on the manufacturies exported and the teas imported during those two years was

from 35 to 40 per cent. During the sitting of one of the many meetings convened upon the subject, I learned that the returns of exports to China were as follows:

	Plain Calicoes.	Printed and dyed.
1845.	186,908,000 yards.	2,309,780 yards.
1846.	68,396,175 "	2,451,650 "
1847.	58,278,465 "	2,063,100 "

It is argued that the reduction should be made to one shilling on each pound of tea. The average annual consumption of the article in this country of each individual has been stated to be one pound, nine ounces. In the Isle of Man where the duty is one shilling the average is two pounds twelve ounces. Now it is an undeniable fact that a corresponding increase of consumption of an article takes place directly a reduction of duty is effected. There are not only more consumers, but those who consumed formerly, now consume more largely. It is fair to presume that as the rate in the Isle of Man is two pounds twelve ounces, so that in England after a reduction of duty, it would increase to three pounds. This is a fair assumption, considering that at the present time the average is in Australia as near as possible seven pounds for each person. As a means of increasing the revenues the following calculation may be relied on. With a population of thirty millions at three pounds a head, the annual consumption of tea would be 90,000,000 lbs. The present revenue is about £5,000,000—now 90,000,000 lbs. at one shilling duty would amount to £4,500,000. The increase is 44,000,000 lbs. which will require for sweetning 176,000,000 lbs. of sugar—this at 1½*d* will be £1,100,000. It is generally remarked that it takes five pounds of sugar to sweeten one of tea; this calculation is made however twenty per cent less than the usual estimate so that it might be within the mark. £600,000 would therefore be the increased revenue derived supposing the estimated reduction in the duty took place.

There is every chance of a steam communication with Australia, thanks to the indefatigable endeavors of Lieutenant Waghorn—a certain average communication of sixty-five or seventy days, would alter the entire character and fortunes of New South Wales—imparting to them morally, socially and politically an impetus far beyond the calculations or conception of the most sanguine. Mr. Jackson the resident agent in London for Van Dieman's Land, states in a letter to his constituents, that the cape route is the one finding the greatest favor with the imperial government—as such and in illustration of the powers of the auxiliary screw propeller, with which it is proposed to furnish ships for the intended cape passage it would be well to mention that at a recent trial the Ampheon a 36 gun frigate of 1,284 tons, her performance was so satisfactory, as not to leave a doubt upon the minds of practical men that the voyage would shortly be accomplished in the way named.

As a conclusion to this summary the closing price of the funds and principal Railways are quoted. Consols for money 84, 83¾. Three per cent reduced 84. 83¾. new. Three and a quarter per cents 85, 84¾. Consols for amount. 84.

Blackwall Railway shares 4 to 5. Brighton 30 to 31. Birmingham 132 to 137. Great Western 100 to 102. Dover 25 to 27. Eastern Counties 13 to 14. Hull and Selby 98, to 100. Great North of England, 230. The satisfactory arrangements made by the English Government with the Republic of France have placed the money market in a more healthy state The information has however only reached London about an hour or two ago by Electric Telegraph or the markets would have shown a more marked improvement.

CHARLES POTTER.

Since the foregoing was in type we have been favored with the following from the same gentleman, and take pleasure in presenting it to our readers.

NO. III.

London, April 3rd, 1848.

The recent disturbances on the continent have naturally caused some slight stagnation in the English markets. Buyers of foreign commodities have been extremely careful in their purchases; considering it may be supposed that there is no particular inducement for investing in funds where no possibility presents itself of a realization either speedy or remote. To prevent risks therefore, but little

speculation in foreign articles is carried on, investments being made in things of a greater solidity of character, chiefly English, but which secures a sure if not a quick return. Amongst the more recent topics of conversation is that which refers to the failure of several establishments in the West Indian Trade, the consideration of which subject will be, and indeed has at various intervals been brought before Parliament. Whether these Colonial dependencies should be subjected to the law of free trade or be exempted from its operation is an extremely delicate and intricate question, as it not only involves economical points but the incalculable higher principles of religion and morals.

The present condition of France has shown the first gleams of a depreciation of the currency. The universal dismay which has seized the entire community both in Paris and the provinces, is the best evidence of the estimation in which matters are viewed. The bank of France has suspended cash payments. It is a truism that it is in vain to restrict the amount of the issues of uncontrovertible paper with a view to prevent depreciation under such circumstances. A meeting has lately taken place of the principal changeurs of Paris, and under the pretence of contributing as far as they could to the circulation of silver, agreed that they would pay from that day a premium of two francs and a half per thousand francs for specie, and would charge five francs as a maximum for exchanging notes for silver. Thus within the first week of the announcement of the suspension of cash payments, the notes of the Bank of France are depreciated to the public a half per cent. This notice is only the forerunner of others of a similar kind that we may expect to see issued every week while the present state of disorder continues, and while in spite of all efforts on the part of the government the specie will continue to be hoarded and exported. All experience teaches us that no power or effort that does not restore confidence is capable preventing the disappearance of specie, and the transmission of capital to those countries where it enjoys perfect security. What then, it is asked will become of France under these circumstances. If it were possible that a nation consisting of thirty-five millions of enlightened and industrious people, could continue to drift through the aimless and exhausting policy under which it has suddenly been placed, there could but be one reply to such a question. Exhaustion of its present resources, and a suspension of all reproduction would only lead to poverty and general decay. That such a fate, although the inevitable result of a perseverance in the present policy of the provisional government of Paris awaits France, no one is willing for a moment to believe. The rational hope is that the sounder judgment and more correct appreciation of the bulk of the French people must soon interfere to arrest the rule of contemptible and imbecile disorder, which at this moment prevails; unfortunately the system of government hitherto pursued in France, finds the country without any means, other than that of a central power in Paris, for giving expression to an opinion, however strong, or force to convictions however general. This is the great source of the uncertainty which now prevails as the failure of France, differing in this respect so much, from the other parts of Europe which are convulsed. Those in whose hands the govenment of France has been placed in the meantime, are fortunately men who, however mistaken in their views and wrong in their policy, are generally believed to have no object beyond the public good, and who would not have had recourse to any desperate means of opposing such a substitution for the present course, as the general interests of the nation strongly indicated. But France at this moment presents the melancholy spectacle of a great and powerful people, and their most lasting interests, sacrificed to the most contemptible indulgence of the passions indolence and momentary gratifications of the most ignorant and least virtuous portion of the people, and who really are very few in number. That this state of things can long continue is impossible, but how or by whom, it is to be remedied is difficult to foresee; yet so far there are good grounds for hope, inasmuch as the elements at present opposed to order and good government are really so weak and imbecile in themselves, that it may fairly be hoped that the first opportunity which offers for those classes which have really the greatest stake and the greatest indulgence to combine for the common good, such combination will be successfully achieved with little opposition.

I annex as far as I have been able to obtain it, a monthly statement of the stock and supply of sugar and coffee in the six principal markets of Europe; they are as follows:

SUGAR.

March 1,	1845	1846	1847	1848
	cwts.	*cwts.*	*cwts.*	*cwts.*
Holland* - - - -	312,000	195,000	395,000	555,000
Antwerp - - - -	50,000	135,000	75,000	115,000
Hamburg - - - -	120,000	200,000	55,000	105,000
Trieste - - - -	50,000	105,000	81,000	200,000
Havre - - - -	85,000	35,000	5,000	50,000
	617,000	670,000	611,000	1,025,000
England - - - -	1,399,000	1,128,000	1,071,000	1,941,000
Total - - - -	2,016,000	1,798,000	1,682,000	2,966,000
Total in G. Brit. of Col. sugar	939,000	730,000	557,000	1,220,000
Total Foreign Sugar - -	1,077,000	1,068,000	1,125,000	1,746,000

Value in the first half of the month of March in London, per cwt. without Duty.

	s	*d*		*s*	*d*	*s*	*d*		*s*	*d*	*s*	*d*	*s*	*d*	*s*	*d*
Musco., E. and W. India per cwt	30	0	to	0	0	35	0	to	0	0	35	0	to	0	0	24	0	to	0	0
Havana, white - - - -	25	0		32	0	26	0		32	0	31	0		34	0	25	0		30	0
— yellow and brown -	18	0		23	0	18	0		25	0	26	0		30	0	17	0		23	0
Brazil, white - - - - -	21	0		24	0	21	0		25	0	27	0		31	0	19	0		23	0
— yellow and brown -	16	0		19	0	17	0		20	0	22	0		26	0	15	0		17	0
Java - - - - - -	16	0		27	0	18	0		33	0	22	0		36	0	15	0		27	0
Patent, crushed in bond -	31	0		0	0	34	0		35	0	35	0		36	0	29	0		0	0

The Stocks in this country of British plantation sugar as well as foreign, have undergone but a slight alteration since the beginning of last month. In the five principal markets of the European continent however, the quantities on hand show an increase of 25 per cent, since then, the largest augmentation being in Holland. It will be seen that the present aggregate stocks of foreign sugar in all the ports are from 50 to 65 per cent in excess of the last three years, and in Great Britain the stock of British plantation sugars was at the same period last year 55 per cent less, and in 1845 and 1846, 25 and 40 per cent smaller than at present. The deliveries for consumption in this country, which were large the first two months of 1847, have not diminished; the official returns are not yet published, but it is found that up to the 11th of last month the deliveries from the principal markets of this country amount to 1,042,810 cwt. against 986,077 cwt. in 1847, consequently about 6 per cent more, besides this there is likewise an increase in the delivery of molasses, which is equivalent to a quantity of 36,000 cwt of sugar. Of foreign sugars as well as Mauritius and Bengal less has been cleared for consumption up to the present time, than in the corresponding period in 1847, this diminution is however more than counterbalanced by the large increase in the quantities of West Indian sugar. The value of most descriptions in England is now about one shilling per cwt. or 5 per cent lower than in the middle of last month, and on the continent of Europe the decline has been almost the same. The produce of our London bond deliveries has maintained its former price.

From this table it appears that the present value of British colonial sugar is from 20 to 25 per cent lower than at the same time in the last three years; foreign lots were considerably dearer last year; in 1846 they were about 10 or 15 per cent higher, but in 1845, prices rated but little above the present sales. The last accounts from the producing countries again report favorably about the crops in Cuba and the Brazils; but less satisfactorily than hitherto with respect to some parts of the island of Porto Rico. As regards the West India (British) Colonies there are the same complaints, not about so unpropituous a season, or a scanty yield, but about pecuniary and social difficulties to secure the crops and bringing them to market. The transactions in foreign sugar have not been of importance in this market dur-

* In first hands *only*; in all other places in first and second.

ing the last few weeks, being almost entirely confined to the requirements for home consumption or of our bond references. The quantity of foreign sugar for home use in this country from the beginning of the year to the present time, is only about half of what was taken during the same period in 1847 by 140,000 cwt. against 269,000 cwt. last year. A few words with respect to Coffee.

COFFEE.

March 1,	1845	1846	1847	1848
	cwts.	*cwts.*	*cwts.*	*cwts.*
Holland* - - - -	929,000	780,000	783,000	731,000
Antwerp - - - -	112,000	48,000	82,000	156,000
Hamburg - - - -	160,000	120,000	140,000	140,000
Trieste - - - -	84,000	86,000	74,000	112,000
Havre - - - -	47,000	31,000	50,000	74,000
England - - - -	492,000	398,000	358,000	393,000
Total - - - -	1,824,000	1,463,000	1,487,000	1,606,000

Value in the first half of the month of March in London, per cwt. without Duty.

	s	*d*	*s*	*d*	*s*	*d*	*s*	*d*	*s*	*d*	*s*	*d*	*s*	*d*	*s*	*d*
Jamaica, good to fine ord. per cwt	45	0	to 58	0	38	0	to 52	0	42	0	to 50	0	32	0	to 40	0
Ceylon, good ordinary -	45	0	48	0	46	0	47	0	43	0	44	0	32	0	33	0
Brazil, good ordinary -	29	6	30	0	32	0	33	0	31	6	32	0	30	0	31	0
St Domingo, good ordinary -	29	0	29	6	30	6	31	0	31	0	31	6	30	0	31	0
In Holland—Java, gd ord. per ½ kil	22	cts			22	cts			21	cts			20	cts		

During the first two months of this year the importations of coffee into Europe were larger than for the same time in 1847; the principal surplus shows itself in the large quantities of Rio Coffee, which have been brought to Hamburg, Antwerp and Triste. At the same time the deliveries from the seaports have decreased, in the commencement, owing o the long interruption of the inland navigation, and during the last few weeks through the state of political and financial affairs; in consequence of this, this years total stock appears in the foregoing table about 8 per cent larger than at the same period of the two preceding years, but 12 per cent smaller than in 1846. It must not however be concluded that there is a decrease in the actual consumption of the article, for no doubt the stocks in the interior of the consuming countries are more reduced than they appear to be in the six above named markets. The value of the article is generally now lower than in the begining of the year, when up to the present time the largest transactions have taken place, viz Hamburg and Antwerp; in our markets there has been a fall, not only in those discriptions which are principally taken for consumption in this country, but likewise in those foreign descriptions principally Cost Rica which have been brought into the market although the value of Java Coffee has been nominally maintained in Holland, the next large sales there, which will only take place under favorable auspices, will fix its real value, but this description is already now cheaper than at the same time of the three preceeding years, and if prices should go still lower during the course of next month, there is every probability of a favourable reaction taking place. As soon as the present circumstances which are injurious to trade in general, will have improved, for neither are our total stocks in Europe excessively large, nor are heavier importations to be expected from the producing countries; besides this in consequeuce of the withdrawal of many orders from the Brazils, and the existence of high insurance premium, they will become dearer, the supply will be delayed and its cost enhanced. In our markets the stocks of coffee amount to about 317,000 cwt. against 287,000 cwt. at the same time last year. The business in the article since the middle of last month has been very limited; notwithstanding this, the exports from this country to the European Continent during the first two months of 1848 have been larger than for the same period in 1847, whereas the deliveries for home consumption are smaller.

* In first hands *only;* in all other places in first and second.

I now proceed to give you some idea of the state of the crops in England. For the last two or three weeks there has been a succession of wet weather which has excited some apprehension. As yet however I believe no substantial or permanent mischief has been done to the growing wheat plant, which throughout the season has been remarkably vigorous without being considered as too forward. Upon the light lands and the well drained soils there are no signs of injury from the wet; and the chief source of apprehension to the occupier of such lands, is that with the present full and strong plants, too great a growth of straw may be expected. This is at most a possible and contingent danger which a few weeks of fine weather might remove. On the undrained clays, where the weakest class of farmer is to be found, the wet weather is causing much anxiety, for the wheat plant is turning yellow, and with a much larger continuance of wet, will to some extent perish. But here too a few fine weeks would set all to rights, and there never was a wheat plant that could more easily bear some loss than that of the present season. To the farmer the delay in sowing his spring corn and pulse, and in preparing for roots, which the wet weather has compelled, is at present a more serious evil while the agricultural laborers are very extensively out of employment from the same cause. Much out-door work has been necessarily postponed, till another year, and much of the ordinary routine of cultivation will probably be performed this season in a hurried and imperfect manner. In Wiltshire some complain too much of wet. This may be true, yet every where the low grounds have been drenched and flooded, for a time, the wheat plants do not seem to have been materially injured. The consequence of the unsettled weather in February has been an idle month for farmers as far as tillage is concerned. The sowing of spring corn has of late years been gradually in advance, as regards the period of former seed seasons; arising probably, on the heavier soils from the lands being more generally drained; and on the light lands, from the practice of forcing the sheep sooner and returning them earlier in the spring. Whatever the cause, there is now a desire to sow both pulse and barley at the earliest period the state of the land will permit; but according to present appearances we must this year be content with an old fashioned seed time. During the last two seasons the thicker the crop the more productive it has been, but a wet summer would probably lead to a very different result. Scarcely any check has occurred to the growth during the winter. Some of the earliest sown is therefore very luxuriant, but on the heavy soils the present wet and cold weather will retard its progress—not however in a favorable manner. At present it is nevertheless too early to offer any thing like prediction of the productiveness of the present crops, although it may be mentioned that in several recent years, the wet springs have been followed by the largest produce. It is gratifying to note that during the last few days the weather has become very dry, warm and genial.

From the official returns of the Board of Trade there is observable a very serious decrease in the quantity of wine entered for home consumption in the month of January during the present year as compared with the same month of the year 1846 and 1847, and it is clear that not only has that decreased consumption continued from the end of January to the present time, but that it will continue in an increased ratio until the present exorbitant duty on wine is very materially lessened. The decrease in the quantity of foreign wine (exclusive of Cape,) duty paid since 1846, is no less than 88,861 gallons for the single month of January alone, causing a loss of revenue in that short time, of £23, 886 15*s* 6*d*, or equal to about £280,000 a year. The increase in the quantity of foreign and colonial spirits of all kinds duty paid during the same time, is 142,181 gallons. The quantity of foreign wine duty paid was but 459,117 gallons in the whole month of January last. Of foreign and colonial spirits 454,222 besides British spirits. Taking the population of Great Britain and Ireland in round numbers at 30,000,000, the present consumption of foreign wine does not amount to one very small glass a month to each individual. Now where is there another country in the world, consuming all this immense quantity of ardent spirits to this absurdly small quantity of wine. From the commencement of the free trade policy, there have been various reductions in the duty on spirits, but not one farthing has been taken off the duty on wine. The consumption of spirits has in consequence of this lessening of the duty, so greatly increased, that the reduced duties give now a much larger revenue than did the original high duties, whilst the consumption of wine, and the revenue received from it, have fallen to a most alarming sacrifice. Sin-

cere Free Traders did not doubt that the reduction in the duty on brandy, rum, and Geneva, was a wise measure and one that would benefit alike the merchant and the revenue, and events have proved the correctness of that opinion. What benefited the spirit merchant and the revenue, is not likely to be prejudicial to the wine merchant and the revenue, and it is only even handed justice to give to the latter the same measure of relief that was extended to the former. To allow the people of this country to drink their brandy, rum and gin at a cheap rate, but not to allow them to drink their wine at an equally cheap rate, is clearly to do a service to the spirit trade at the expense of the wine trade, and against this every wine merchant may justly protest. It would not be difficult to show how the trade of this country with Spain, with Portugal, indeed with the whole of the South of Europe, will benefit by the reduction of the wine duties. The tables of the Board of Trade sufficiently show how the revenue suffers by this present exorbitant rate in the constantly diminishing quantity of wine, entered for home consumption. None doubt that wine is better for the health than spirituous liquors, and again the duty having been lowered on one class of beverages, should be equally reduced on another; it being clear to every one, that the dealers in those articles on which the duty has been so lowered, are driving a larger trade than before, whilst the dealers in those articles on which the duty has not been reduced, are driving a smaller trade than before—the natural inference being that, the advantage to the former is at the cost of the latter.

There has scarcely been any period when the corn market has been so gloomy as within the last week or two. The state of the weather as has been already observed, has been such as to excite grave fears of the effect of such continued and heavy rains on the prospects of the crops. In many places the wheat crop has suffered and is looking very unhealthy. All farming operations both on grass and arable lands have been suspended, and the preparations for spring grain are several weeks later than in ordinary years. In consequence of these circumstances the grain markets have undergone a further slight advance. If, however, the weather should be favorable, there is abundance of time to make good all the mischief that has been done; and therefore it would be premature to calculate on the harvest being affected by these causes. Referring to the effects of a cold wet spring at home our readers may be reminded of the events of 1842. The winter and spring were both extremely similar to those of the present year; the wheat plant was much injured. Early in June the weather suddenly changed, and became extremely hot, vegetation advanced at a rate seldom seen, and the harvest proved not only abundant but early, the weight of the ear fully compensating for the thinness of the ground. After the experience of 1842, we must be very careful in drawing a conclusion from bad weather so early in the season. The wheat plant is thick on the ground and the breadth sown is large. A statement is given of the week just ended of the corn returns.

	Wheat.	*Barley.*	*Oats.*	*Rye.*	*Beans.*	*Peas.*
Sold - qrs	99,689	65,807	28,523	166	7,284	1,567
	s d	s d	s d	s d	s d	s d
Weekly average Mar. 18	50 4	30 5	20 4	28 6	36 2	39 10
— — 11	50 2	30 4	20 2	33 4	36 2	39 0
— — 4	49 11	30 8	20 5	30 5	36 9	41 8
— Feb. 26	50 2	30 9	20 8	30 3	38 0	41 7
— — 19	50 11	31 3	21 1	32 4	37 10	42 5
— — 12	51 0	31 2	20 7	30 5	38 1	43 2
Six weeks' average -	50 5	30 9	20 6	30 10	37 2	41 3
Same time last year -	73 8	53 4	31 11	55 3	53 1	56 6
Duties - - -	7 0	2 6	2 6	2 6	2 6	2 6

GRAIN IMPORTED.

An account of the total quantities of each kind of corn, distinguishing foreign and colonial, imported into the principal ports of Great Britain, viz:—London, Liverpool, Hull, Newcastle, Bristol, Gloucester, Plymouth, Leith, Glasgow, Dundee, and Perth,

In the week ending March 15, 1848.

	Wheat and wheat flour	Barley and barley meal	Oats and oat meal	Rye and rye meal	Peas	Beans	Indian corn and Indian meal	Buckwheat & buckwht meal
	qrs	qrs	qrs	qrs	qrs	qrs	qrs	qrs
Foreign -	32,945	8,359	11,014		1,525	6,628	12,812	
Colonial -	628							
Total -	33,573	8,359	11,014		1,525	6,628	12,812	

Total imports of the week - - - - - - 73,912

The funds opened this morning at a slight improvement upon the average prices which are, Consols 83 ; Reduced Three per cents 82½ ; Three and a quarter per cents 83 ; Exchequer bills 25s to 29s premium ; India Bonds par to 5s premium. Long annuities 8-13-16 to ¼. Bank Stock 193. The cause of this heaviness is of course the disturbed state of the Continent, and more particularly the financial embarrassments daily surrounding the government of Paris. The following has just been issued from the Bank of England.

BANK OF ENGLAND.

An Account, pursuant to the Act 7th and 8th Victoria, cap 32, for the week ending on Saturday, the 4th day of March, 1848.

ISSUE DEPARTMENT.

Notes issued - - -	£28,205,830	Government Debt -	£11,015,100
		Other Securities - -	2,984,900
		Gold Coin and Bullion - -	12,762,592
		Silver Bullion - - -	1,443,328
	£28,205,830		£28,205,830

Dated the 9th day of March, 1848.
M. MARSHALL, Chief Cashier.

BANKING DEPARTMENT.

Proprietors' Capital -	£14,553,000	Government Securities (including Dead Weight Annuity - -	£11,574,921
Rest - - - - -	3,980,840		
Public Deposits (including Exchequer, Savings banks Commissioners of National Debt, and Dividend Accounts,) - - -	6,564,785	Other Securities - -	13,115,456
		Notes - - - -	9,830,215
Other Deposits - -	9,249,804	Gold and Siver Coin - -	668,097
Seven Day and other Bills -	830,260		
	£35,188,689		£35,188,689

Respectfully, &c.,
CHARLES POTTFR.

JOURNAL OF MINING AND RAILROADS.

NO. I. RAILROADS IN GREAT BRITAIN.

There are in Great Britain three thousand five hundred and forty-nine miles of Railroad in operation. The amount of capital invested in these is £113,765,603, equivalent to $550,706,802 52. This is an average cost per mile of £32,644, equivalent to $157,996 96. The longest road is the London and North-Western, being 428 miles, and which cost £21,513, 354, equivalent to $104,114,633 36. This is an average of about £50,265 per mile, equivalent to $243,282 60.

The two most costly railroads in the United States are the Boston and Worcester and the Boston and Lowell. The Boston and Worcester road is 44¼ miles in length, and has a double track. There are 14 miles of branches owned by it, which have only a single track. The whole cost of this road and its branches, exclusive of equipments has been $3,767,938 02. This is an average of $64,271 86 per mile. It must be remembered, however, that in this estimate are included the fourteen miles that have only a single track. The Boston and Lowell Road is 25¾ miles in length, and has a double track. It has a branch 1¾ miles in length of a single track. The whole cost of this road and its branch, exclusive of equipment, has been $1,807,101 93. This is an average of $68,196 30 per mile. There are several causes which have made the construction of Railroads in Great Britain more expensive than in our country. Economy in building has not been so much an object there as with us. Their roads are more durable than ours, more costly in their structure, of less grade, and straighter. In addition to this, land damages are far heavier there, than in any part of the United States. This, indeed, is one of the principal items in the excess of cost. Roads, however, are now built in both countries at a much less rate than formerly. We, with our usual propensity to get the most out of the limited capital we are enabled to employ for objects of great enterprize, have studied the art of building railroads cheaply, it has become with us a sort of science. Determined to possess their advantages as widely as our interests or necessities may seem to demand, we have sought to accomplish this, not so much by increasing the capital to be expended as by multiplying its power. And it is wonderful with what result We understand that the cost of constructing twenty-seven miles of the Boston, Concord and Montreal Railroad, to be completed in June next, will be less than an average of $15,000 per mile. And the road, it is said, is as well built as any in the country. This shows what Yankee enterprise and thrift can do.

ENGLISH RAILWAYS.

Name of Railway.	Length R'lway	Present actual cost.	Price per share	Last Div.
Arbroath and Forfar	16	£179,939	25½	4 p c
Birkenhead, Lancashire and Cheshire	15	706,993	38¼	—
Caledonian	130	3,594,470	29⅜	—
Dublin and Drogheda	35	733,655	52	3⅛
Dublin and Kingstown	7¾	473,282	—	7
Dundee, Perth, and Aberdeen Junction	47½	285,745	30	6
East Anglian (Lynn to Ely)	55½	1,062,742	8⅜	—
East Lancashire	24	1,733,915	20	—
Eastern Counties	221¾	7,698,370	13¾	5
Eastern Union	50	979,926	80	—
Edinburgh and Glasgow	53	2,374,745	35	6
Edinburgh and Northern	29	953,207	18	—
Glasgow, Paisley, and Ayr	64½	1,890,547	85¾	7
Glasgow, Paisley, and Greenock	23	838,964	16	3
Great Southern and Western Ireland	110¼	1,876,326	19½	—
Great Western	281¾	10,970,636	95	7
Kendal and Windermere	10¼	169,888	23	—
Lancaster and Carlisle	70	1,395,193	49	4
Lancashire and Yorkshire	124¼	6,807,314	88½	7
London and North Western	428	21,513,354	134	8
London and Blackwall	4	1,146,289	5	⅞
London, Brighton and South Coast	152½	6,086,822	30¾	4

Names of Railway	Length R'lway	Present actual cost.	Price per share	Last Div.
London and South Western	189	6,264,164	49	8
Londonderry and Enniskillen	14½	160,013	16	—
Manchester, Sheffield and Lincolnshire	46	2,336,624	80	5
Maryport and Carlisle	28	424,417	39	3
Midland Company	402½	8,658,604	104	7
Midland Great Western (Irish)	36½	583,776	10½	—
Newcastle and Carlisle	66¼	1,184,080	101⅓	6
Norfolk	81¾	1,375,633	65	6
North British	78	2,514,150	23	5
Shrewsbury and Chester	17	591,158	17	—
South Devon	29	1,339,860	20	—
South Eastern	165½	6,398,218	27	6
Taff Vale	38	785,607	—	5⅓
Ulster	25	646,211	52	6
Whitehaven Junction	12	147,095	—	6
York, Newcastle and Berwick	236½	3,685,102	30	9
York and North Midland	230½	3,196,869	67	10
CONTINENTAL RAILWAY.				
Amiens and Boulogne	68¼	573,388	8¼	4
Antwerp to Ghent (monthly)	31	——	—	—
Belgian ditto	—	——	—	—
Dutch Rhenish	57¼	——	1	—
Northern of France	211	2,000,000	4¼	4
Orleans to Bourgeis (Central)	107½	——	—	—
Orleans to Tours	72	600,000	32⅞	4
Paris and Orleans	82	2,011,720	47½	12¼
Paris and Rouen	85	2,082,916	24	11⅜
Rouen and Havre	59½	——	10½	4
Strasburgh and Basle (monthly)	88	——	6	1⅞
West Flanders ditto	—	——	1¼	—

NO. II. COMPARATIVE FARES OF RAILROADS IN THE UNITED STATES.

As the comparative rates of fare on railroads is a subject of some interest, we avail ourselves of the labors of Mr. Minor, the industrious editor of the American Railroad Journal, as exhibited in the following tabular statement of the principal railroads in the United States, giving their length, through fare, and rate, per mile, from which it will be seen that the New York and Erie Railroad charges the lowest rate, namely, 1.72 cents per mile ; the Harlem next, and then the Long Island Railroad. The New England roads all range below three cents, except the New Haven, Hartford, and Springfield, which is one-tenth over. And the next lowest, after the New England roads, is the Weldon and Wilmington, N. C., which is a fraction less than 2½ cents—quite too low for a country so thinly populated, though high enough for many of the more northern lines.

From this statement, it will be seen that the railroads in the State of New York, diverging from the city of New York, charge lower rates than any other roads in the country ; and we presume the managers of these roads have been influenced by the belief that, where there is a dense, and to a certain extent, confined population, the true plan is to put the rates of fare low, and thus induce the masses to use the road. This, we are fully convinced, is the true policy, and we believe it will ultimately prevail.

Name, Commencement and Termination.	Length. Miles.	Thro' fare. $ cts.	Cents per mile
Eastern Railroads—Boston to Portland	105	3 00	2·85
Boston and Maine—Boston to Portland,	110	3 00	2·72
" Lowell—Boston to Lowell,	26	0 65	2·50
" Worcester—Boston to Worcester,	44	1 25	2·80
" Providence—Boston to Providence,	42	1 25	2·97
Fitchburgh—Boston to Baldwinsville,	71	1 75	2·46

Name, Commencement, and Termination.	Length. Miles.	Thro' fare $ cts	Cents. per mile.
Fall River—Boston to Fall River,	53	1 35	2·54
Old Colony—Boston to Plymouth,	37½	1 00	2·66
Western—Worcester to Albany,	156	3 75	2·27
Nashua and Lowell—Lowell and Nashua,	15	0 40	2·66
Concord—Nashua to Concord,	34	0 80	2·35
Norwich and Worcester,	60	1 50	2·50
New Haven and Springfield,	62	1 87	3·00
Bridgeport,	98	2 00	2·04
New York and Harlem,	53	1 00	1·88
New York and Erie,	87	1 50	1·72
Long Island,	95	2 00	2·10
Camden and Amboy—New York to Philadelphia,	90	3 00	3·33
New York and New Brunswick,	33	0 75	2·27
" Philadelphia,	88	4 00	4·54
Reading—Philadelphia and Pottsville,	92	3 00	3·26
Philadelphia and Baltimore,	97	3 00	3·01
Westchester and Columbia,	32	0 75	2·34
Philadelphia, Lancaster and Harrisburg,	107	4 00	3·73
Philadelphia, Germantown, and Norristown,	17	0 40	2·38
Harrisburg and Chambersburg,	56	2 12	3·78
Baltimore and Ohio—Baltimore to Cumberland,	179	7 00	3·91
" Washington,	40	1 60	4·00
" Susquehanna,	71	2 13	3·00
Washington and Richmond, (including porterage,)	133	5 50	4·13
Louisa—Gordonsville,	50	3 25	6·50
Richmond to Petersburgh,	2 ½	1 00	4·34
Winchester and Potomac,	32	2 00	9·25
Petersburg and Roanoke—Weldon,	63	3 00	4·76
Weldon to Wilmington	161½	4 00	2 48
Wilmington to Charleston by steamboat,	——	4 00	——
Gaston and Raleigh,	87	4 00	4·60
South Carolina—Charleston to Augusta,	136	6 75	4·96
Columbia—Branchville to Columbia,	68	3 38	4·97
Georgia—Augusta to Atlanta,	171	7 09	4·09
Athens Branch,	39	1 95	5·00
Western and Atlantic—Dalton,	100	5 00	5·00
Central Savannah to Macon,	191	7 00	3·65
Macon and Western—Atlanta,	101	4 00	3·96
Montgomery and West Point,	60	3 00	5 00
Vicksburg and Jackson,	47	3 00	6·38
Albany and Schenectady	17	0 50	2·94
Greenbush and Troy,	6	0 20	3·33
Troy and Schenectady,	20½	0 50	2·43
Utica and Schenectady,	78	3 00	3·84
Utica and Syracuse,	53	2 00	3·77
Syracuse and Auburn,	26	1 00	3·84
Auburn and Rochester,	77	3 00	3·89
Rochester and Attica,	44	1 56	3·54
Attica and Buffalo,	31½	0 94	2·98
Buffalo and Niagara Falls,	22	0 75	3·40
Lockport and Niagara Falls,	24	0 75	3·12
Michigan Central—Detroit to Kalamazoo,	146	4 40	3·00
Detroit and Pontiac,	25	1 00	4·00
Erie and Kalamazoo— Toledo to Adrian,	33	1 00	3·00
Southern Michigan—Monroe to Hillsdale,	70	2 00	2·85
Mad River—Sandusky to Bellefontaine,	102	3 25	3·18
Little Miami—Cincinnati to Springfield	84	2 00	2·38
Lexington and Ohio,	28	1 25	4·46
Mansfield and Sandusky,	56	1 50	2 67
Madison and Indianapolis,	86	3 00	3·48

Hunt's Mer. Mag.

NO. III.—RAILROADS FROM BOSTON.

The following table exhibits the amount of capital invested in the seven railroads which terminate in that city. The aggregate length of these seven roads is 325 miles. The length of the respective roads, as given in the table, is exclusive of branches, and exclusive of connecting lines of railroad, constructed by the companies, by means of which these routes are all, with one exception, extended into the adjoining States. The amount of capital paid in, as here stated, exhibits more nearly the cost of the respective roads, including that of stations and machinery, exclusive of branches, than the total of expenditures by the respective companies.

The table shows also the receipts of income by the respective companies, during the past year, as reported in the late sworn annual return; the expenses of the rates of dividend paid. It shows also the number of miles travelled, by trains drawn by locomotive engines, on each of the roads; the number of passengers, and of tons of freight transported on each, and the average of income per mile on each road.

We shall take another opportunity to present a condensed statement of the cost, business and income, of the more extended lines of railroad in the State.

	Capital paid in.	Income.	Expenses.	Net Income.	Div. p. c.
Old Colony - - -	$1,199,300	$171,153	$87,020	$84,133	6½
B. & Prov. - - -	2,520,000	362,328	175,646	187,982	7½
B. & Worces. - -	3,500,000	722,170	381,985	340,185	10
B & Lowell - - -	1,800,000	448,555	253,408	195,147	8
Fitchburg - - -	2,335,900	384,444	161,433	223,011	10
B & Maine - - -	2,601,391	511,504	220,959	291,245	9
East. & N. H. - -	2,732,500	424,840	160,083	264,757	8
Total - -	$16,689,091	3,025,994	1,439,534	1,586,460	

	Length miles.	Miles run.	No. of Passengers.	Tons Freight.	Income pr. mile
Old Colony - - -	37	152,693	389,994	42,707	$4,626
B. & Prov - - -	41†	226,261	487,478	87,605	861
B. & Worces. - -	44¾*	405,155	589,305	283,718	16,184
B. & Lowell - -	26*	250,546	484,683	281,441	17,252
Fitchburg - - -	50¾	256,809	494,035	214,476	7,631
B. & Maine - - -	73	324,281	728,307	120,428	7,007
East & N. H. - -	53‡	241,531	892,896	41,047	8,016
Total - - - -	325	1,857,276	4,075,968	1,101,422	

NO. IV.—RAILROAD MATTERS.

There were transported over the Philadelphia and Reading railroad during March last, 188,898 tons of coal—being the largest amount ever transported in the same time since the opening of that road; and as compared with the same month of 1847, shows an increase of 111,104 tons—the total for that month being but 77,794 tons. The largest amount of coal carried in any one month last year, was 150,061 tons, brought down during the month of August.

A large and highly respectable meeting of the citizens of Charleston, with the mayor in the chair, resolved unanimously in favor of pledging the credit of that city to the amount of five hundred thousand dollars, to aid in the construction of the road from Chattanooga to Nashville. This subscription to the stock of the company, it is said, will ensure the completion of the work.

The Coosa River Journal informs us that the branch road from Kingston to Rome will be opened to a point within about seven miles of Rome, by the first of June, and the entire work will be finished in the course of the coming summer.

The Milledgeville Recorder mentions the fact that at a recent meeting of the board of directors of the Milledgeville and Gordon railroad company, it was una-

* Double track. † 15¼ miles double track.
‡ 16 miles double track. Portions of the other roads above named consisting of double track to the extent in all of about 112 miles.

nimously determined to put the road under contract, at an early day. The prospect is that it will be commenced in about a month.

It has been calculated that Massachusetts had expended, at the end of 1847, very nearly fourteen millions of dollars in the construction of railroads in her borders. These are not yet all finished, but we are informed that three-fifths of them paid in eight per cent. dividend last year.

The election of a new board of directors for the New York and Harlem railroad company takes place in a few weeks, and as material changes are said to be contemplated, it becomes necessary for the party favoring such changes, to hold a majority of the stock. This accounts, says the New York Pathfinder, for the increased activity of that stock, and the large investments that have been made by some few individuals.

The earnings of the Long Island railroad for the month of March, show a gain of 15 per cent. over the same month of last year, and although the freight business is smaller, much more has been done in the passenger travel.

The receipts of the New York and Erie road for March were $23,160— being an increase of $3,034 over those in the same month of last year.

The Chicago Journal says that the contracts for the grading and bridging of the first 39 miles of the Chicago and Galena Union railroad are already made, and adds, "we should not be greatly surprised if we found ourselves riding out ten or fifteen miles towards Galena on this track about the fourth of next July."

The general railroad bill which was passed by the legislature of New York, authorizes the formation of companies, and the construction of railroads in any portion of the State where land can be procured for the purpose. The land to be valued by referees, and in all cases those referees to be appointed by the town or city authorities though which the road may pass.

The Albany and Cohees railroad bill has been passed, and the company have obtained power to continue their road as far as Waterford.

A railroad is to be constructed between the towns of Lawrence and Manchester in New Hampshire.

The Massachusetts legislature have granted a charter for a railroad between Salem and Lowell.

MISCELLANIES.

NO. I.—THE MONEY CRISIS IN ENGLAND—EFFECT OF BANKS ON COMMERCE—THE CONSTITUTIONAL TREASURY.

The terrible crisis, which has not yet fully run its course in England, is the result of bad legislation, by which the will and caprice of a few men at the head of a great corporation have been substituted to the free and healthy action of the natural laws of trade. Among the different kinds of capital which constitute the wealth of a nation, those called fixed and floating capital bear most directly upon its productive industry. The former consists in the value of buildings, machinery, farms, and the like. The latter, which may be properly called commercial capital, is that portion of all kinds of merchandize—among which the precious metals—the value of which are employed and absorbed reproductively in commerce, manufactures and agriculture. All that portion of merchandize, whose value is reserved by those who possess it for absolute consumption, to supply their current personal wants is not capital, but income. Capital is the value which is absorbed reproductively; the value which being consumed in one shape, is made to re-appear and increase in another—income, the value of which is absorbed, destroyed absolutely and without return. The former is a means of production, the latter of consumption. Floating capital is nearly the only kind available in commerce, and it performs half the functions in manufactures; and its supply and demand regulates the rate of interest—which is the rent of commercial capital—as the supply and demand of fixed capital regulates the rent of buildings, farms, &c. After these few remarks it becomes evident that if, from any cause, a considerable portion of the floating capital of a nation is absorbed to produce fixed capital, its diminished supply must raise the rate of interest so as seriously to affect com-

merce and manufactures; and this state of things must necessarily continue until the industry and savings of the country have replaced the capital, whose nature has been entirely changed, or commerce and manufactures are reduced to the level of the supply of floating capital. So far as commerce and manufactures are concerned, the immense capital absorbed by railroads, might as well have been entirely destroyed. The failure of the crops has but partially contributed to the crisis, for could the orders from this side have been filled, the reduction of duties on British goods by our last tariff and the great prosperity of our country, presented extraordinary facilities to England for meeting her increased imports by corresponding exports, for changing her labor against our labor.

The question now arises what can have produced these enormous speculations in railroads and consequent misdirection of capital? That fault must be charged to the dangerous elasticity of the bank credit system. Sir Robert Peel after witnessing the immense mischief produced by the action of the Bank of England in 1839, provided by his bill of 1844, against the over emission of notes by the issue department, but he entirely neglected to guard against the undue emission of deposits by the banking department of the bank; and yet both have procisely the same effect in inflating the currency. In fact it amounts to the same thing, whether the bank issue two pounds in paper on one in gold in its vaults, or whether it issue only one pound and then put it out again a second time, after it returns on deposit—in either case its cash liabilities are swelled to double the amount of its cash assets; and the circulation is increased equally in both cases; for a deposit, payable on demand, forms a part of the circulation: it is cash on hand to the depositor. Now, it results from this that whenever the course of trade brings an addition of precious metals into the country, the free use of the increased deposits gives an unhealthy stimulation to credit and excites speculation, which, when fairly started, knows no bounds, but the ability to borrow. The bank loans must finally reach their maximum, whilst the demand for money continues very active, to meet the vast increase of individual engagements, always resulting from inflated credit; the rate of interest then runs up rapidly, and induces the depositors to withdraw a great portion of their funds; immediate contraction becomes necessary to the safety of banks, and the crisis begins. Thus, the influx of specie into the country, which is generally the result of prosperous legitimate business, is changed, by the action of the banks, into a source of disaster, and national prosperity is ever made the forerunner of national distress. Such is the history of all commercial revulsions; their frequency is always in proportion to the dependence of the general business of the country upon banks; and their intensity depends principally upon the direction which speculation happens to take; whether it runs on fixed values, when the nature of the floating capital employed is entirely changed, or upon commercial articles, when the reduction of commercial capital is only the difference between their real value and the fictitious price to which speculation has carried them for a time. This may serve to explain the greater severity of the present crisis, when compared with that of 1839. Sir Robert Peel admits that the charter of the bank requires further revision. If he intends to prune it down until it works well at all times, he is very likely to find, by the time he has done with it, that there is amazingly little of it left.

Whoever has observed that an extention of the currency is invariably followed by a disproportionate increase of individual engagements; that the facility to meet these engagements depends on the amount of the currency at the time they fall due, and that this amount is entirely regulated by the Banks, can form an adequate idea of the terrible power conferred on the managers of these institutions. In this country, we have no means to ascertain the proportion which the currency bears to the amount of individual bills afloat, and its effect upon speculation; but in England, where no bill is recoverable at law without the stamp, and a duty is charged proportionate to the amount of the bill, the sum of bills outstanding is easily estimated by the stamps issued. These bills average three months; and therefore, one-fourth of the stamps issued during the year, gives the amount of bills afloat. The official returns from 1837 to 1839 inclusive, present the following results, viz.:

	Stamps Issued.	Bills afloat.
1837 - - -	£455,084,445	£113,771,111
1838 - - -	465,504,041	116,376,010
1839 - - -	528,493, 842	132,123,460

During that time, the movement of the Bank of England was as follows:

	Bank Issues:	Bullion in Bank.
1837—January -	£17,422,000	£4,287,000
1838—September -	19,665,000	9,614,000
1839—December -	16,366,000	2,887,000

We see from this that an increase of £2,100,000 in the circulation of the Bank, from 1837 to September 1838, was followed by an increase of individual bills afloat in 1839 to the enormous amount of fifteen and a half million sterling, and that by the time these bills were falling due, the circulation was actually less by £1,100,000 than at the beginning of 1837, before the increase of individual engagements commenced. The artificial medium of payment being thus withdrawn, ruin and bankruptcy followed as a matter of course.

A scarcity of money, and a kind of panic, has existed in our large commercial cities for the last two months, partly from the commercial situation of England, and the discredit of sterling bills, which has rendered for a time unavailable the floating capital against which these bills are drawn; but principally from the improvident course of the Banks—those of New York in particular. During the whole of last year, it was very evident that, sooner or later, the affairs in England must, to some extent, react upon this country. As far back as the month of August, the Banks were warned, by the course exchanges began to take, to prepare and strengthen themselves by gradual curtailments. The amount of commercial engagements would have been insensibly reduced, and the pressure avoided. But no heed was taken, and although the specie in their vaults fell off one-fourth from the beginning of August to November, their lines of discount continued up to that time, at an amount never before reached—and it must be remembered that a good portion of these loans were on fancy stocks—a species of security probably so called because their value is all in fancy. At that time, the Banks became suddenly alarmed at the continued exports of specie, and at once refused to loan a dollar on the best commercial paper, which had to be sold in the street at 1½ and 2 per cent. per month. Speculators play a high game at any rate, and it is only playing a little higher to pay exorbitant interest; but the regular dealer is absolutely ruined by such rates. The previous prosperity of the country, and the general soundness of commercial firms, has enabled them, so far, to bear the shock, but not without great sacrifices. However, we may well thank the much-abused Sub-Treasury that matters are not worse. There cannot now remain a doubt, that with the Government deposits for an additional means of expansion by the Banks, we should have witnessed a repetition of the events of 1839—'41. Although that law cannot entirely prevent inflations, because its check is only partial, we need not fear any very serious derangement of the currency whilst it remains in force. Its repeal has been advocated in certain quarters to facilitate the negotiation of Government Loans. Far better, and indeed cheaper, to pay a little more for such loans; for nothing costs dearer to the country than commercial revolutions.

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NO. II.—RELATIVE COST OF STEAM AND WATER POWER.

In a pamphlet recently issued at Louisville on "The Relative cost of Steam and Water Power; the Illinois Coal Fields, and the advantages offered by the West, particularly on the Lower Ohio, for Manufacturing," there is much information grouped, establishing the superiority of steam over water power, for machinery on a large scale. We extract so much as will give the argument, supported by figures.

We deem the present a suitable time to introduce the subject to our readers, in view of the establishments now in progress in the South and West, for manufacturing. Among the Cotton Mills lately put in operation, under favorable auspices, is one at Tuscaloosa, Alabama, owned by the "Warrior Manufacturing Company." When the building is filled, as it will soon be, it will contain at least 6,000 spindles and 150 looms. The working has begun with a less quantity, but orders are in process of execution at the North for the entire amount. Steam is used, from coal taken from the inexhaustible bed in the vicinity. White labor is alone employed in the establishment.

The satisfaction given by the starting of this mill, has encouraged other investments of the same kind; and we learn that a wealthy citizen of Tuscaloosa county has closed a contract for machinery to be delivered next fall, on estimates of $50,000, himself the sole owner. Companies have been formed, and others will follow, under the general charter law of the State for such objects. Individuals have only to specify in writing, the name, capital and purposes of their company, to secure the privileges of incorporation,—the instrument to be recorded in the office of the clerk of the county court.

But, we did not intend to dwell on the prospects of any one place in the manufacturing enterprise. Our object, mainly was to show that steam was preferable to water as a motive power for cotton mills. To this end, we quote from the pamphlet alluded to, which is based on calculations for the country on the Ohio, but not less applicable to other sections where coal may be obtained cheaply, as in Alabama.

Here are the promised extracts:

A cotton mill of ten thousand spindles will turn out two tons of goods a day—say six hundred tons per annum; 100 pounds of cotton will average 89 pounds of cloth; 666 tons of cotton are therefore required by the mill; 1,266 tons cost, aside from drayage, (a considerable item,) $2,532 in transportation between the mills and where the goods are sold. Aside from the extra cost of water-power, this mill would require a capital of not over $250,000—perhaps $200,000 would be sufficient. This item then is 1 or 1¼ per cent. on the capital invested. Mr. Montgomery, in his work (published in 1840,) on the comparative cost of manufacturing in England and America, says:

"The attention of manufacturers in New England has been for some time directed to the advantages of steam as a means of propelling machinery, *the advantages of a good location being considered equal to the extra expense of steam power.*"

Another important item of expense avoided, by a steam factory, is that of heating the mill. Mr. Montgomery gives the average cost of this at $467 80 per annum for a mill of say 4,000 spindles. Six hundred dollars per annum may then be put down as cost of heating a mill of 10,000 spindles. And it is not only necessary that the atmosphere in the mill should be at the proper degree of temperature but of the proper dampness, so that the threads shall run smoothly. Both purposes require a large part of the fuel and machinery used in a steam mill.

The foregoing are not all, but are the most important difficulties attending the use of water power for cotton and woolen factories. Most of the difficulties are found wherever this power is applied; and, as a general rule among engineers, at any position where coal can be had at 10 cents a bushel, steam is as cheap as water power at its minimum cost. Such is the theory. The facts seem to be beyond this; for in New England, where water power is so abundant, the largest cotton factories, now being erected, are to have steam as a motive power; of this character are the Naumkeag mill at Salem, and that at Portsmouth; the first of 40,000 and the last of 50,000 spindles, and these are the largest in the world. At Fall River, Bristol and Newport, steam factories are in successful operation. The fine goods of the Bartlett steam mills at Newburyport, have a wide reputation. The recent erection of the James Mill, at the same place, shows the success of the former; and within the last year the escape steam of a new mill at Lowell is drowning the noise of the falls of the Merrimack. Let it be remembered that coal in New England costs, on an average, twenty-three cents per bushel.

As before stated, the water power at Lowell now costs $5 a spindle; $50,000 of capital is to be invested in power to run a mill of 10,000 spindles.

The interest on this, per annum, is - - -	$3,000
Now add the cost of heating the mill - - -	600
And the cost of transportation - - -	2,532
And you have one side of the equation as against steam	$6,132

I cannot fix with precise accuracy the steam power and fuel required for a mill of 10,000 spindles. The only authority before me gives this estimate for one of 3,700 spindles, with the necessary machinery for preparing the cotton and manufacturing the cloth: A high pressure engine of 40 horse power—length of stroke 4 feet, diameter of cylinder 1 foot—makes 40 single or 20 double strokes per minute; three or four round boilers, 15 feet long by 2½ feet in diameter, requiring

200 gallons of water, and consuming 1¼ chaldrons (45 bushels,) of bituminous coal per day—pressure of steam sixty-eight pounds to the square inch. To do double the work does not, as I am told, require double the power and nothing like double the fuel. This estimate was made eight or nine years since; within that time very important improvements have been made in the application of steam power and the use of fuel; and probably I may safely say that an engine of 90 horse power, requiring 80 bushels of coal, a day, is sufficient for the mill of 10,000 spindles.

Then 80 bushels coal for 300 days at 23 cents per bushel - - - - - - - -	$5,520 00
Add salary of engineer - - - - - -	500 00
	6,020 00.

Showing an advantage in favor of steam, *from coal at twenty-three cents a bushel*, of $112 per annum. The cost of an engine of 90 horse power, boilers, belting pipes, &c., not required for the purposes specified in the other, would be probably not over $9,000, while the cost of communicating the water power to the machinery would be at least 17,000. Montgomery, in the work already quoted from, states the cost of two water wheels, equal to eighty horse power, including gearing, gates, shafting, belting, &c., at $17,000. The Tremont and Suffolk mills at Lowell, contain 12,000 spindles, make coarse goods, and have six water wheels, the cost of each wheel between $3,000 and $3,500, entirely exclusive of the cost of excavating and walling up the branch canals to and from the mills.

It is a mooted question, which will last the longer, the wheels or the engine; but give $3,000 to equal the difference, and there is the interest of $5,000 to add to the advantage before stated.

After refering to the cost of working cotton mills in Great Britan, and the New England States, and pointing out the reduced scale of expenses in the coal region, the author of the pamphlet presents the following

SUMMARY

Of the advantages of manufacturing cotton where the seams of the Illinois coal field are cut by the lower Ohio

We have the following data as elements of the calculation.

A mill of 10,000 spindles will consume 666 tons of cotton, make 600 tons of cloth, and use 24,000 bushels of coal, 2,530 gallons of oil and 46,000 lbs. starch per annum; it will require of operatives 25 men and boys and 200 females, whose wages will average the Lowell prices—say males 80 cents per diem and females $2 per week besides board, or males $6,000, females $20,800 per annum. The average prices of board at Lowell are per week for males $1 75 and for females $1 25—or total per annum $17,375.

It is safe to assume that the prices of board on the lower Ohio would be one-third less than at Lowell where a sirloin of beef costs from 15 to 16 cents the pound, potatoes from 60 cents to $1 per bushel, and most of the other articles of food in the same proportion. It will be remembered that the rents of the boarding houses at Lowell, are regulated by a "sliding scale" and are dependent on the general prices of food—sometimes these have, as is said, been entirely abated, and the boarding house keepers have received gratuities from the corporation, so as to make a living without changing the prices of board—and it is fair, therefore, t include the cost of board as a part of the wages paid by the corporations.

We have before, on page 22, average saving in cost of transportation and interest on difference of capital - - - -	$44,182 80
Add difference of one-third in cost of board on $17,375 - -	5,791 06
Add difference of 19 cents per bushel on 24,000 bushels coal, -	4,560 00
Total saving per annum, - - - - - - - - - -	54,533 86
Deduct $1 50 per ton, supposing the goods are to be sold at Louisville, St. Louis or Memphis, - - - - - - - - -	900 00
	$53,638 86

If, to save all cavil, we deduct 3 per cent to cover interest, insurance and commission on sales at these cities on 4,000,000 yards at 8 cents—or $320,000, - - - - - - - - -	53,638 86 9,000,00
	$44,633 86

If lard oil is used we have the advantage of 15 cents per gall.—but if the use of sperm oil is continued, we pay an advanced price of 15 cts. per gal. or $379 50. We should, however, save about 1 cent per lb. in price of starch or $460 and in flour, wood, gas (or lard oil for lamps) probably $600 per annum.

We have a clear saving of over 22 per cent on $200,000, which is an ample capital.

I am informed by those who have the means of knowing the fact, that the average dividends declared on cotton mills controlled in Boston have been 14 per cent for the last five years—but I am not advised of the amount of earnings in these mills that has been added to surplus funds, or invested in new machinery, improvements, property or new stocks.

As the new city of Lawrence is growing with magical rapidity and new cotton mills are in progress of erection all over the New England seaboard, notwithstanding the changes in the tariff and the desperate struggles of the English manufacturer to drive us out of foreign markets, (so desperate that brown cottons have been sold cheaper at Calcutta than their cost in Manchester;) and as we know that the bank and railroad dividends in New England will average 8 per cent, it will not be considered an over estimate to put this average on our capital to the savings above: or 16,000 plus 44,633 86—$60,633 86 or over 30 per cent dividends to be reasonably expected from our mills.

If the *maximum* of advantages is taken and added to 20 per cent average of earnings of eastern mills (and it is believed that this calculation would be nearer the truth) the estimated profits here would be so enormous that western men could scarcely be brought to believe the accuracy of the calculations without the severest tests of experience.

Several months since and before these articles were written, I sent the results to a friend and practical manufacturer of cotton on the Ohio. His answer was this —"An Irish laborer once wrote home to his friends that he got meat for his meals three times a week: why, you lying dog, said his employer, do you not get meat three times a day and every day? Yes said the laborer, but I want my friends to come and join me—meat three times a week will bring them here, but if I promise it three times a day, they won't believe a word of it."

Another practical manufacturer in the West writes to me that the calculations are substantially correct and the results within the truth, but that a model mill, on the Lowell system, is required to convince the western capitalists of these truths.

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NO. III.—GERMANY.

The example of France, stripping monarchy of power, and affecting the right of the people to govern, has already drawn concessions to the popular demand, from many sovereigns in Europe, to be followed, no douht, by still greater, or by the uprising of the people. Our object here, is not to comment on this state of things, however strongly we desire the success of liberal principles throughout the world; but merely to introduce two statistical tables from Prof. Darby, concerning the German States, which we deem interesting, in connection with the following patent of the King of Prussia, convoking the United Diet:

"We, Frederick William, by the grace of God King of Prussia, &c., have, in conjunction with the Imperial Government of Austria, invited our German confederates to assemble immediately for general consultation respecting those measures which are called for by present events, so fraught with difficulty and so dangerous to the weal of our fatherland.

"We are resolved to strive with all our energy that these consultations may lead to an actual regeneration of the German Confederation; so that the German people, fundamentally united by strengthened free institutions, and at the same

time protected from the dangers of discord and anarchy, may regain its ancient grandeur and assume its proper rank in Europe. Whatever be the result of our exertions, measures will, in any case, be taken to consolidate our kingdom and dominions, for the execution of which we require the co-operation of our faithful States. For these reasons, and because in great and momentous epochs like the present, we can only feel strong in conjunction with our States, we have resolved to open the United Diet on Thursday, the 27th of April, in our capital and residences of Berlin.

"Given at Berlin, March 14, 1848.

"FREDERICK WILLIAM."

No 1.—*Table of the Political Sections of those parts of Germany having each its own Government.*

		Extent in English sq miles.	Aggregate Population.	Population to the square mile.
Bavaria, Kingdom		20,621	3,960,000	192
Wurtemburg, Kingdom		8,020	1,520,000	190
Grand Duchy of Baden		4,150	1,130,000	270
Hohenzollem Sigmaringen		138	38,000	275
Hohenzollem Heckengen		107	15,000	140
Hesse Darmstadt		3,753	700,000	187
Hesse Electoral		4,442	500,000	132
Hesse Hombourg		161	20,000	124
Nassau		1,923	337,000	175
Saxe Weimar		1,417	212,000	156
Saxe Meinengen		988	130,000	131
Saxe Altenburg		689	104,000	150
Saxe Coburg Gotha		965	145,000	150
Rensgreitz		138	23,000	167
Rens Schleitz		206	28,000	136
Rens Lowenstein Ebersd'f		237	23,000	94
Schwartzburg Sonderhausen		352	48,000	133
Schwartzburg Rudolstadt		367	65,000	
Anhalt Dassau		345	56,000	162
Anhalt Bernbourg		330	38,000	115
Anhalt Koethen		313	34,000	107
Brunswick		1,494	242,000	162
Lippe Detmold		437	72,000	164
Lippe Schaumbourg		207	26,000	120
Waldeck		460	54,000	117
Mecklenburg Schwerin		4,757	431,000	90
Mecklenburg Strelitz		766	77,000	100
Holstein Oldenburg		2,497	240,000	96
Lubeck	Imperial cities.	115	41,000	356
Hamburg	Imperial cities.	146	148,000	1,000
Bremen	Imperial cities.	61	49,000	800
Frankfort on Main	Imperial cities.	84	52,000	620
Saxony, Kingdom		5,770	1,400,000	240
Hanover, do		14,800	1,550,000	104
		74,235	13,577,000	182

No. 2.—*Tabular View of those Provinces of Germany which have been from time to time annexed to the adjacent great monarchies, but which in themselves remain essentially, nationally considered, German.*

	Area in English square miles.	Population.	Popul'n to the sq. mile.
DENMARK.			
Duchy of Holstein and Duchy of Lauenburg	3,200	410,000 40,000	140
PRUSSIA.			
Brandenburg		1,500,000	
Pomerania		845,000	
Saxony, province of	50,000	1,400,000	143
Westphalia		1,230,000	
Juliers, Cleves, and Berg		1,060,000	
Lower Rhine, province of		1,120,000	
AUSTRIA.			
Bohemia, Kingdom of	15,243	4,001,852	260
Duchy of Tyrol	8,285	827,635	100
Moravia and Upper Silesia	7,731	2,110,141	270
Duchy of Styria	6,541	923,982	140
Carinthia and Carniola	5,936	743,217	125
Austria, Upper Austria, Lower, and Saltzburg	11,350	2,190,634	190
Total	137,086	18,402,461	134

NOTE.—Combining the results of both tables, the area of ethnographical Germany comes out 211,321 square English miles ; and the aggregate population to a comparatively unimportant fraction of 33,000,000, with a distributive population of 182 to the English square mile.

The numbers in these tables are not given as minutely correct, which degree of perfection the original authors of the document do not claim. The element was derived from the geography of Larenaudiere, &c., and the tables of Black's Edinburgh Atlas.

WILLIAM DARBY.

THE PUBLISHING BUSINESS.

Pictorial Histories, &c. We are indebted to the courtesy of Messrs. Sorin & Ball, publishers, Philadelphia, for a copy of the Pictorial Histories of Greece, of England, of France, and of the United States, each in a handsome volume, by S. G. Goodrich, author of Peter Parley, &c. These books are designed for schools, and we are glad to hear of their extensive circulation.

Messrs. S. & B. have also laid upon our table, thirteen volumes of Dr. Reese's edition of Chambers Educatorial course, illustrated with a variety of engravings. The publishers are doing much good, for the rising generation especially, by reproducing such works,—the very best for schools as well as for private instruction, in all the useful branches of knowledge. The volumes range in the following order :

1. The Rudiments of Knowledge in Common Things.
2. Introduction to the sciences.
3. Rudiments of Vegetable Physiology.
4. Rudiments of Animal Physiology.
5. Rudiments of Chemistry, with illustration of the Chemical Phenomena of Daily life.

6. Rudiments of Geology.
7, 8 and 9. Natural Philosophy, including Mechanic's Elements of Practical Machinery, MovingForces &c. &c.
10. Rudiments of Zoology. with engravings.
11. First Book of Drawing.
12. Second Book of Drawing, including Perspective.
13. Treasury of Knowledge, or Common Objects.

They have also issued First Lessons in Latin, by N. C. Brooks. Most of the book stores in New Orleans, are supplied, we believe, with the valuable works published by Messrs. Sorin & Ball, to which we have referred.

☞The Messrs. Appleton, of New York and Philadelphia, have sent us through J. B. Steel Esq., 14 Camp street, some half dozen volumes which we commend to students of Greek and Latin.

1. A Practical Introduction to Greek Prose Composition, by J. K. Arnold M. A. Rector of Lyndon &c.
2. A Practical Introduction to Latin Prose Composition, by T. K. Arnold, M. A.
3. First Greek Lessons, by T. K. Arnold, M. A.
4. A First Latin Book, by T. K. Arnold, M. A.
5. Cornelius Nepos: With Answered Questions and Imitative Exercises. By T. K. Arnold, M. A.
6. Titus Livius. Selections from the first Five Books, together with the Twenty-first and Twenty-second Books entire. Chiefly from the Text of Alschafski, With English Notes for Schools and Colleges. By J. L. Lincoln, Professor of Latin in Brown University.

In behalf of the Messrs Appleton it may be said, that they not only issue works of acknowledged merit, but their style of execution is unsurpassed by any other press.

From these gentlemen, through Mr. Steel, we have also received Ollendorff's New Method of learning to read, write and speak Spanish. We believe it will fully answer the purpose, and therefore recommend it to the diligent learner.

Also a handsome volume by John Ratcliffe Chapman, Civil Engineer, on the use of the improved American Rifle, with practical advice to Young Marksmen.

Mr. J. B. Steel, 14 Camp street, have laid upon our table,

1. Anatomy and Physiology: Designed for Academies and Families by Calvin Cutler, M. D. With over two hundred engravings.
2. First Book on Anatomy and Physiology. By Calvin Cutler, M. D. With eighty four engravings.

Each of these volumes form a seperate treatise, with ample directions for preserving health &c. We regard them as decidedly excellent. The style is popular, and a glossary annexed, giving the definitions of technical terms, which must increase both the utility and demand.

☞We thank the Hon. Henry Johnson, of the U. S. Senate, for a copy of the interesting Report of the Secretary of War, in relation to the commerce, navigation, and means of defence of the western lakes and rivers.

☞The March No. of that sterling monthly, "The Farmers Library," edited by J. S. Skinner, New York, has been received.

Romance of the History of Louisiana, By Charles Gayarre.

Our friend the Author, has submitted the proof sheets of this interesting work for our inspection and we have had much delight in its perusal. The subjects treated are full of novel interest and are presented with a lively and graphic pen We could select many passages of high eloquence and finish. The sketchings of character are life-like and it is not difficult to fancy the men themselves before us. In the catagory may be mentioned "Maurepas," "Ponchartrain," "Cadillac," "Crozot" &c. The authors forte is evidently in such delineations. The style of the production is in general well sustained, though, an accasional instance could be shown of too sudden rise and fall.

Mr. Gayarre tells us that his object was simply amusement, and that he has not aimed at any historical truth further than that it may furnish the ground work for embellishment—nor must we suppose this "embellishment" *always* resting upon such a foundation.

Some of the northern papers have spoken of the "*Romance of Louisiana*" in the highest terms from the few sheets they have seen, and we agree with them in predicting a large degree of popularity for it. Should this be the case, the author promises a continuation of the subject, which it may be said he has in the present volume but barely touched.

So soon as the work is regularly issued from the press we shall endeavor to give it a critical examination, and as we were first to bring a part of it before the public we may give some elaborate quotations.

Second Municipality Library.

We are indebted to the Board of Directors for a copy of their new Catalogue—a neat volume of 150 pages, and are gratified with the exhibition it makes of valuable works, to be found upon the shelves of the library. The volumes are arranged under appropriate heads, as "Religion," "History," "Sciences," and "Arts," &c. An alphabetical list of authors' names is appended.

The organization of this public munificence is very simple and effective. The annual sum expended in books is made up from an inconsiderable tax levied upon each of the public school scholars in the municipality, in no case to exceed 25 cents per month. Such payments for 3 years constitute the scholar a life member. The proceeds over a certain amount are to be invested in apparatus, &c., with a view of securing philosophical and scientific lectures. An annual payment of $5 entitles any citizen to the advantages of the library.

Since the period of its opening, (we quote from the directors' circular,) but two years have elapsed, and it now numbers Seven thousand Five hundred and Sixteen volumes, comprising most of the standard works in the English, and many in the French and other European languages. Two hundred and forty eight volumes have been presented by citizens, &c. By reference to the catalogue it will be found that care has been taken to select such books, as will serve to create and foster a taste for useful reading, and promote the cause of learning and sound morals. The steady growth of the library is secured, by the permanence of its principal source of revenue, but the directors anticipate with confidence, that an increasing list of annual subscribers, will enable them to accelerate the extension of its benefits, and in a few years to render it one of the largest and most valuable collections of books in our country.

The British Reviews.

This periodical literature of England has deservedly attained high character wherever, throughout the world the language of that country is understood. We look in vain for any thing to match it from other quarters, and are gratified that no prejudices of our own countrymen can prevent the extensive introduction of so valuable a literature. Messrs. Leonard Scott & Co., of New York, reprint with great facility these publications and furnish them to American readers at about one third of their cost to our transatlantic brethren. There are four Quaterlies and one Monthly in the list, so that the frequency of their issue keeps pace with all the great movements, discussions and questions of the age and day.

1. *The Edinburgh Review.* This great work was established during the war waged by the Tory party of England against France and America. The graphic and stirring delinations of those events, presented in the pages of this distinguished journal exhibit the truest portraiture of those perilous days to be found perhaps in the language. It is now edited by Napier, and has been graced with the contributions of Jeffries, Mackintosh, Brougham, Southey, Macaulay &c.

2. *The London Quarterly,* Is the Tory organ of resistance and defence, and followed the Edinburgh. It is now edited by Lockhart, and its chief contributors have been Southey, Scott, Lockhart, Apperley, Ferguson, Wordsworth, Lord Mahor, Dr. Milman &c.

3 *The Westminster Review,* was established by the ultra liberals of the House of Commons, and presided over for a long time by Jeremy Bentham. It asserts boldly popular rights as against all systems of oppression, and has been blended with the *Foreign Quarterly* whose object was to diffuse throughout England, the beauties and excellencies of the Literature of all Europe. In this point of view the publication is invaluable.

4. *Blackwood's Magazine.* It is scarcely necessary to comment on this most familiar and spirited production, presided over with so much ability by Professor Wilson. Though rank tory in its character, it is said to maintain a circulation

of 40,000 copies in Great Britain, being altogether unequalled. In the United States notwithstanding the unpalatable complexion of its politics, the circulation is in the same proportion.

5. *The North British Review:* we quote from its prospectus. The great ecclesiastical movement in Scotland led to its establishment. There was no JOURNAL in the UNITED KINGDOM, which appeared to meet the necessities of this Anti-National-Church agitaiton. Indeed, the revolution caused by the disruption induced a new state of things, placing the actors in new positions of observation: nor could they give utterance to their new perceptions of State and Church Polity—their new sympathies—their new emotions, without some other organ of thought than any then extant. Hence the spontaneous agreement of the great master minds among them, in the necessity of a new outlet of opinion, and the immediate creation of the NORTH BRITISH REVIEW.

This Periodical is not ultra in its views on any one of the grand departments of human knowledge: at the same time it never drifts from its moorings on the shores of the pure Evangelical religion of the Bible. Nor will it fail to compare most favorably with every other contemporary in the amount of talent, energy and spirit, enlisted on its side. The names of Sir David Brewster, Dr. Chalmers, Cunningham, Lorrimer, Candlish, Gordon, Buchanan, Smith, &c., are a host in themselves. Much foreign talent is also pledged to adorn and enrich its pages.

All of these works are to be had of J. C. Morgan, Exchange Place, New Orleans.

MORAL COURAGE: *an address before the Alumni of the College of Charleston,* BY M. R. MIDDLETON, *a member, Charleston,* 1848.

There is a light moral tone and religious sentiment pervading this address, characteristics by no means common in our times; and what is also remarkable, sound, practical sense and judgment have been preferred to oratorical flourish, tinsel, and declamation! It is so easy to frame an oration of the latter kind, so difficult of the former.

If possible we would have been present at this celebration of our venerable and good *alma mater* and shared in the conviviliaties of the occasion. We yet hope this *exile* is not *forever*. How cherished are the associations which crowd around and the pell which binds us when memory runs back to that bright past and brings it all up again, beautiful and fresh and hopeful! Alas those familiar faces and those familiar scenes, those hours of boyhood, those buoyant dreams of adolescent manhood—our frolics and our foibles; the daily professor, the weekly debate, the stirring commencement, the vacation and re-union again —gone, gone, are ye all!

"I may not pause—I must not dream
Too beautiful these visions seem!"

There is not of all that class of 1848 with whom we went hand and hand *through* college and *out* of it, that we could find it in our heart not to love. A fine net work of sympathy binds us to them and binds forever. We remember the solemn parting and the affectionate farewell when that once joyous brotherhood dispersed itself *forever*. We scarce can learn how these elements have been distributed? What new connexions and sympathies and associations they have formed and whether cordial or wormwood has tinctured the cup for them? One we know has been taken already to heaven. He was gentle and innocent and good in all his walks. Our seats were side by side and we loved the simplicity of a character which found glee and merriment in every scene and diffusod it spite of all opposition around. He had no enemy for what heart could be so malignant? On a foreign soil, with the armour of a soldier on him and in the service of his country, our early friend was taken home. Tears of friendship and affection have bedewed the grave, in that strange land and start to our eyes even now in memory, of *Samuel Henry Dickson*. But we have wandered among the tempting flowers and lights of other days too long for the demand of the busy present, Alas! Alas!